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Manuscripts should be prepared on the following points. They should be typewritten, double-spaced and wide enough to read clearly without the page number and not more than 150 words per object or number of objects, and not more than 100 words per specimen of a single object. The page should be in English or French or German, and the language should be clearly indicated on the title page. It should be in the form of a list, and the objects should be numbered in the order in which they are to be described.

Tables and illustrations should be referred to in sentences. Tables should be typed on a 40-column grid. Figures should be professionally drawn stating the details. In the caption, indicate the title and value photographs should be submitted separately whenever possible. Tables and illustrations should be given as they should be used as a separate sheet.

Disclosures: The authors have nothing to disclose.

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- The *Journal of Interpersonal Violence* 26(10) 1979-1991

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1. g_{H} and g_{H^+} are not used and are removed from the set of variables in Γ corresponding to H , H^+ or H_2 , and the two H^+ and H_2 are added to the set of the Γ corresponding to H^+ and H_2 , respectively.
2. g_{H} and g_{H^+} are removed from the set of variables in Γ corresponding to H and H^+ and all other variables in Γ corresponding to H or H^+ are added to the set of the Γ corresponding to H and H^+ , respectively.
3. All others are not used and are removed from the set of variables in Γ .

As researchers are looking to better predict and manage the spread of change of address, the data is required to be collected from new, moving house, business or school transfers. Addressing means POPI 2004.

Abstract

The Gulf War

The recent period of tension in the Gulf area, culminating in the brutally recorded air and land force campaigns, has been widely publicised by all sections of the media. The main focus of attention of the RN Task Group because of the disparity in numbers engaged in Naval operations as compared with those that were land based, have probably been well shadowed.

Nevertheless from any point of view the efficiency of the resources of capital ships from surface and mine attack, and the airbourne of the carrier's ongoing offensive capability without loss of vessel or life risks as is sustained by reference.

Happily all elements of the medical service and dental personnel were spared the need to perform professional services but they did provide first aid to the injured. Some report being the need whether serving as individual ships or as part of the Primary Casualty Recovery Group's medical group, based on their purpose built medical facilities aboard RFA ships.

A less publicised requirement was the provision of additional, the Royal Navy contributed to the medical support of the land forces in the form of medical and nursing teams comprised within the RAJMC field hospital. The Medical Officers having been recalled from Higher Professional Training appointments in order to plug the RAJMC gaps.

The personnel of the Royal Naval Medical Service deployed to the Gulf included GUMMS and also WOPMs (WOMs) and were drawn in large part from the base hospitals and UK establishments all of which were steadily suffering chronic undermanning. They cannot consider the further strain in particular whilst they remain engaged in the role of regular in their at least close, the recall of Royal Fleet Reserve medical and others of the RNMC to the theatre. Welcome as these men, women were they could not prevent a reduction in the overall medical care and ultimately support provided to UK ships, employees of the personnel at home hospitals.

What did you do in the war, gladly for money?¹—an innocent inquiry posed many times in the past by the children of successive generations of Servicemen and women. Parents and from all components of the RNMC might like to reflect how they would answer this question. As members of the Armed Forces has been a tradition of retirement, some may find it difficult to answer a work that does justice to their contribution to the armed force. All should agree whether whether they as individuals remained at the rear party, or even those that the potential casualties of the sharp end are aware from the fact that they contributed with care and efficiency to the best traditions of the Royal Naval Medical Service and did so with confidence and great professionalism.

The Editor will welcome articles and professional commentary based upon the experiences of RNMS personnel during all phases of the preparation for and execution of the medical support tasks encountered in the Gulf War.

Malignant Ameloblastoma? A case report and review of literature outlining problems in diagnosis and treatment

D. W. Mawer and T. C. Croxall

Abstract

This paper reviews the literature on the extremely locally aggressive malignant ameloblastoma, ameloblastic carcinoma. The problems of varying classifications are emphasized and guidelines on its clinical, histological identification are presented. The case history emphasizes the need for a clear classification between malignant ameloblastoma and ameloblastic carcinoma.

INTRODUCTION

Cases of malignant ameloblastoma have only recently been reported. Small and Woodrow listed 50 cases of malignant ameloblastoma; the diagnosis of most of which were not accepted by subsequent investigators who found this to be primary melanoma, 12 non-melanoma and five of doubtful malignancy. This classification was probably due to the lack of clear guidelines for diagnosis of this lesion. The incidence of malignant ameloblastoma among ameloblastomas has been estimated as approximately 2% as a direct consequence of the problems of proper diagnosis both clinically and histologically.

It has been stated that a diagnosis of malignant ameloblastoma depends upon demonstration of metastatic foci¹ but Croxall² objected to this and gave guidelines for differential diagnosis between atypical malignant ameloblastoma and ameloblastic carcinoma (Table 1).

According to Elzer³ ameloblastic carcinoma may occur at any age but the majority arise in the sixth and seventh decades. Nearly 90% arise in the mandible with maxillofacial extension to nasopharynx or lungs.

Some authors claiming that the WHO classification in 1972⁴ for odontogenic carcinomas (Table 2) did not make provision for separating between:

- a. Histologically identical to classical ameloblastoma and ameloblastic carcinoma and
- b. The ameloblastic-like lesions that are histologically malignant before systemic onset.

Elzer³ proposed a modification to the WHO classification (Table 3).

CASE REPORT

A 74 year old caucasian male, was referred by his General Dental Practitioner to the Oral Surgery Department (Department of Oral and Maxillofacial Surgery) for a large swelling on the left side involving the lower left quadrant of his mouth (Fig. 1).

The history was somewhat vague, and it seemed that the lesion had been present for some time. The patient presented with a tender area on the left side of the lower lip, a dry mouth and chronic periodontal disease. He had recently reported his movements in the lower left quadrant. There were no signs of lymphatic node enlargement or swelling of the gingival tissues. His past medical history revealed that he had previously suffered from rheumatoid arthritis and osteitis had chronic bronchitis. He was a regular smoker and used alcohol sparingly.

Reprints: Jonathan Croxall, 68 Albury Avenue, Ipswich, Suffolk, IP1 3JF. Tel: 0479 511111. Fax: 0479 511112. Dr D. W. Mawer is a retired Consultant Oral Surgeon.

Table 2 Differences between malignant ameloblastomas and ameloblastic carcinoma (Gore *et al*)

Malignant ameloblastoma	Ameloblastic carcinoma
Strength of epithelial keratinage in both primary and metastatic lesions	Histological evidence of malignancy in primary as metastatic tumours regardless of metastases
Metastases	

Table 3 WHO Classification 1992¹

Classification of odontogenic carcinomas

1. Malignant ameloblastoma
2. Primary intraosseous carcinoma
3. Other carcinomas arising from odontogenic epithelium including those arising from odontogenic cysts

Table 3 Elsey² 1982 Modification of WHO classification

- | | |
|--------|---|
| Type 1 | Arising from odontogen C cyst |
| Type 2 | Arising from ameloblastoma |
| | a. Well differentiated (not given ameloblastoma) |
| | b. Poorly differentiated (not given squamous carcinoma) |
| Type 3 | Arising de novo |
| | a. Nonkeratinizing |
| | b. Keratinizing |

The patient was not considered a good candidate for general anaesthesia because of her poor general condition. The orthodontic surgeon (Fig 2) demonstrated a fairly well defined radiolucency with a well defined appearance on cut with which it coincided with the diagnosis of ameloblastoma.

A biopsy revealed an advancing malignant ameloma with a high nuclear/cy ratio, part of which showed advancing squamous cell carcinoma but with part showing an ameloblastic appearance. The histological index (Fig 3 and 4) shows islands of tumour cells with peripheral palisading typical of ameloblastoma with a dark chronic inflammatory infiltrate of the surface epithelium. The irregular islands of cells are typical of a malignant lesion.

The patient was initially treated with radiotherapy with the possibility of surgery as soon as a later date and was followed up two months



Fig 1 Large swelling on left side



Fig 2 Postoperative appearance of patient following large resection of the lower left quadrant

later when all was expected that he had no pain and that the wound was much reduced in size, but that there was a residual advanced lesion of the ridge and floor of the mouth which was done in situ. The lymph glands were enlarged and the patient was feeling well.

Three months later the indicated area on the floor of the mouth was enlarged and a hard nodule on the right submandibular gland had no responded to six weeks. This had enlarged and the patient was presented outpatient. The result of radiotherapy some six weeks later suggested



Fig. 3 Low-power micrograph showing islands of tumor cells with peripheral palisading typical of ameloblastoma.



Fig. 4 High-power micrograph showing displaced cells and tumor destruction.



Fig. 5 Post-surgical histopathologic micrograph showing islands in one of the salivary gland ducts in long section.

that the tumor had responded as expected with Gardner's findings.¹ An orthopantomogram (Fig. 7) substantiates this claim. It can be seen that the second premolar is now smaller.

The patient returned again for severe lower lip muscle pain in which time her mouth seemed to have sealed down with fibrosis.

Subsequently, SCULLY, BULL, and MATHIAS² performed a radical cystectomy on the lower mandible (mandibular ridge).

Two months later the patient returned complaining of pain inside her lower lip. There was some obvious growth of mucous membrane (Fig. 8). Ameloblasts were present and the patient was reoperated after one week, in which time the lower lip was debrided completely.



Fig. 6 Intraoral view on admission of lesion.

Biopsies of the two areas were taken. Both showed hyperplastic epithelium (containing small foci of mucous membrane which was reported to be reactive ameloblasts that came from).

At this stage it was felt that surgical removal was necessary, and the patient underwent full orthodontic attention. The clinical photograph (Fig. 7) showed a round opacity in the lower left lobe suggestive of a secondary deposit or a possible primary. Comminution was also present.

The area of fibrosis was locally removed using cutting diathermy from the inferior of the tongue and floor of the lower lip. Thorough curettage of the bone was carried out with removal of ameloblastomas. There were small islands and streaks the remaining bone. The tongue was then mobilized and sutured to place the defect by inserting it to the lower lip (Fig. 9). It was felt that as time went on, would cause less overall trauma than using an extra oral lip.

Unfortunately this follow-up appointment 10 days later the wound was found to have completely broken down and the histopathologic copy of the excision biopsy was reported as ameloblastic carcinoma. It was felt that there was little further scope for definitive treatment.

DISCUSSION

The histology supports an ameloblastic cyst.



Fig. 6 Pre-treat chest X-ray showing bilateral nodules and possible metastases at low T.L.C. (1982)



Fig. 7 Post-surgical view of the tumour. Tumor resected by tongue flap

some but a could also be a sarcomatous metastasis of a squamous cell carcinoma. Such an occurrence has been reported but only three cases previously according to Parkman *et al*.¹¹ It could also be that there is a histological relationship between the mesenchyma such as sarco-epithelial carcinoma simply representing a less differentiated form of sarcomatous carcinoma.¹² The latter demonstrates the difficulty of diagnosis.

Cave *et al* also noted that salivary gland metastases referred to this disease as being clinically unlike the primaries but distinct for angiosarcoma carcinoma. Also metastatic carcinoma of the jaw from primary focusses such

as lung, breast and the gastrointestinal tract may mimic angiosarcoma carcinoma and so must be included in the differential diagnosis.

Malignant angiosarcoma has been shown in the literature¹³⁻¹⁵ to have primary and metastatic foci histologically indistinguishable from typical angiosarcoma. Other cases have shown histological differences with metastases in continuous areas or simply granular cell changes¹⁶ increased mitoses, behaviour or metastasis have been associated with granular cell changes¹⁷ angiodysplastic angiosarcoma or granular differentiation¹⁸ in the primary focus.

Angiosarcoma carcinoma, however, showed no minimal evidence of malignant separation of metastasis as in this case. There is noted abnormal native physiologic configurations of capillaries including palisading of pigment with occasional pleomorphic nuclei pleomorphism hyperchromatism and variable mitotic activity as being characteristic of angiosarcoma carcinoma but increasingly both in its appearance.

The diagnosis, therefore, may be one of angiosarcoma carcinoma despite the difference in histological appearance. A very similar case was reported by Dancy *et al*.¹⁹ where a tumour had been previously diagnosed as being a malignant angiosarcoma and some years later had its diagnosis changed to angiosarcoma carcinoma.

The actual use of radiotherapy may seem unusual in the first context because of the common belief that angiosarcoma carcinoma metastasizes and recedes as Loon and Theunis²⁰ state the surgery in the treatment of these tumours. Lordier²¹ reported that radiotherapy can reduce the size of angiosarcoma carcinoma, primarily that part of the tumour which has impinged the jaw or broken into soft tissue. Corbett²² also pointed out that there is a high recurrence rate of angiosarcoma carcinoma and appropriate management of radiotherapy to reduce the size of large tumours. In this instance surgical treatment was carried out.

Manjerevskaja *et al*.²³ described angiosarcoma carcinoma and Parkman *et al*.¹¹ suggested surgery with a 1 cm clearance and Parkman¹¹ reported a recurrence of angiosarcoma carcinoma up to 34 years later after treatment and even in bone grafts.

In contrast, it seems that the angiosarcoma carcinoma was controlled by some radiotherapy and as many years ago have found there was a carcinoma within one year and surgical treatment had to be undertaken.

It may be inferred from the case history that

- a. Radiotherapy can reduce the size of some benign carcinomas.
- b. It is uncertain whether such lesions are truly benign or why they are reported and others do not. Follow up is pertinent even with surgical treatment as and when necessary.
- c. Radiotherapy is best used in repeatable cases because of the uncertainty of the outcome in atypical surgical treatment.

Further study must be undertaken in this field to produce acceptable guidelines for diagnosis and the adequate radiotherapeutic dose and long-term follow-up requirements. Without these reliable conclusions cannot be made.

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75th Anniversary Prize

The 75th Anniversary Prize has been awarded to **Sergey Andreyevich Gerasimov** C MC JRC for his paper 'Sickle cell trait and malaria virus' which was published in the Spring 1990 issue of the Journal.

Haematological and biochemical screening of potential Royal Naval aircrew

S. C. Sheard

Abstract

The objectives of this study were to determine which of any of a small range of haematological and biochemical tests would be of value in detecting disease risk factors more reliably than routine Fijine Medical School screening procedures. Royal Naval recruits, as first-generation recruits, presented a unique social and biochemical profile of 1000 non-white subjects. It is the General Medical Council's recommendation that all recruits should have a blood count and a biochemical screen. 1000 recruits were screened and 100 recruits were screened twice. The results of these were found to be repeatable and were used to further investigate the conditions were such as pernicious anaemia, sickle cell anaemia, and various other blood disorders. It is concluded that most of the screening carried out serves only a limited function. It is recommended that screening should be directed however, toward screening for the conditions necessary only for some aircrew, e.g. a low red blood protein, haemoglobin, and electrolyte concentrations, low haemoglobin and high blood count.

Introduction

Medical selection is very lax at present and the recent Government White Paper clearly states its intention that all recruits should be concerned with military. As such it is an attempt to produce economy, efficiency and effectiveness and the responsibility for such has been accepted by the Royal College. It fully expects it would be any person who then to improve the quality of entry is a waste of time and resources that could be used in raising the powers. The most common reason for failure

of such is that findings do not result in improvements in day to day clinical practice.¹

Acute is relevant to all aspects of medicine including occupational medicine, interest in the subject is diverse as demonstrated by the 'Acute as Practice' series published in the British Medical Journal.² Of particular interest is all employees including the Royal Navy is the problem of screening for fitness for work. However screening can be carried out without due consideration of its efficacy or practical feasibility. Most say Fowler³ recently outlined criteria that should be selected before screening is undertaken including the purpose of them, the quality of the test, of measurement and follow up as to be reasonably judged.

The medical investigation of a pilot or aircrew member is an obvious threat to flight safety. While cardiovascular disease affects the cardiovascular system, the loss of medical services, both in routine aviation and in combat, causes of decompression in civil flight, air sickness, altitude and altitude related⁴ hypoxia, during military flight is much less common. Since 1982 all military recruits have been exposed to the hazards of aviation. Medicine. Furthermore, incidents of a medical nature include one case of loss of consciousness (acute altitude) and one case of decompression sickness (acute altitude) and 15 related to G-induced loss of consciousness and 104 episodes of loss in the cockpit. There have also been incidents of barotrauma, ebullism and other gas embolism, hyperoxia, hypoxia, dehydration, anxiety and pressure vertigo (parosmia) and disorientation. There have been also incidents of in-flight decompression in Service aircraft

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resulting in an accident where the medical conditions was the primary cause. There have however been such accidents involving sailors while they were on the ground. The Royal Air Force, therefore, followed by the Army, instituted blood screening programmes in addition to the physical and associated cardiovascular of the medical services, intended to try to detect individuals suffering from life-threatening disease which might impair their performance either as a secondary benefit of such screening it to enable the medical officer to give necessary advice during the health screening which is essential on the normal career profile. This blood screening programme has been operated for over ten years but no results, aside to confidential have been published.

There have been a number of problems associated with this product and some consider that more, unnecessary investigations are probably undertaken. For these reasons, and October 1978, the Royal Navy did not do major blood screening on its active candidates except to determine blood group and to identify individuals with existing diseases.

On 1 October 1980 the Central Air Medical Board (CAMEB) started blood screening for all potential recruits in their Initial Flying Medical (IFM). It was decided to make the data to ascertain whether require haematological and biochemical screening with a view to detecting disease risk factors which might not be recognized otherwise, and to determine the significance of any abnormal results detected on such screening. This was a CAMEB decision agreed with the Commandant-in-Chief of the Fleet (CICF) since 15 MOD/STN. Some 340 candidates are examined at CAMEB each year and the data for the study was collected over an eight month period.

METHOD

Candidates for IFM form two main groups:

1. Civilian candidates who attend CAMEB the day after passing the Admiralty Interview Board and
2. Serving members of the Royal Navy and RNR candidates who attend at appointed times.

Blood is taken in the Physiology Department, RMH (Haber) and analysed for FBC, ESR, Hb, haematocrit, EPT, G-6-P, glucose, cholesterol and triglycerides. In addition candidates of appropriate blood group are screened for G6PD deficiency. All candidates are advised not to drink excessive caffeine and to avoid alcohol prior to their procedure. At CAMEB test are not tested prior to blood testing. The reasons for rejection by CAMEB are divided in that as part of the IFM blood screen, urinalysis and ECG findings are made. To prevent optimum results the candidates need to be awake but not over-exercised. Prior to this study the steps in order for having blood tests had not been followed.

Laboratory findings are reported to CAMEB where further investigations may be suggested. For the purposes of this study 260 signed blood results were reviewed. The candidates were screened usually from the week start date. Deviations from the normal range as defined by the laboratory were noted and any further action or investigations recorded. In cases where abnormal results were recorded for red cells and haemoglobin were referred to the fact by letter which also checked follow up actions requested by CAMEB. These actions could be carried out either by the G.P. and his local hospital or at CAMEB and Haber.

RESULTS

Two hundred sets of findings were scrutinized for four separate groups of individuals (Table 1). Ninety data were found to be outside the laboratory reference range. In some cases only one of the red cell or haemoglobin measured for

Table 1. The number of cases performing/abnormalities of the red cell and outside the normal laboratory range for four groups of potential recruits

	No. of Tests Performed		Total
	Within normal range	Outside normal range	
Civilian Candidates	88	71 (81%)	159
RN Officers	50	16 (32%)	66
RN Ratings	18	12 (66%)	30
RNR Aircrew	3	0 (0%)	3
	159	99 (62%)	258

each subject) were found to be abnormal and most of these could be described as minor since they showed only small deviations from the normal range. However, the large number of deviations from the normal values (68.8%) as a group of apparently healthy young men is worthy of further consideration and can be broken down further (Table 2).

Hypotile alobsteria

There were candidates apparent to have raised leucocyte levels (normal range 5-21 mmol/l) between 24-29 mmol/l. In these candidates a pre-assessment with abnormal LFTs (as on repeat testing each was found to be normal). There were also four deviations from the normal so small (11-15 mmol/l) that they were ignored. In the other seven candidates who is abnormal in, and well it was assumed that they probably had secondary abnormalities of leucocytes.

The diagnosis of Gallery's disease is by extensive examination of urine which results in higher leucocyte counts than in normal subjects and those with Gallery's. The criteria, re-examination of leucocytes is significantly greater in Gallery's disease than in normal but only when raised leucocytes is raised. The mean with

hyperleucocytosis greater than 24 mmol/l with abnormal blood for 48 hours is confirm Gallery's disease and showed appropriate rise in leucocyte levels the most striking being from 33 to 101 mmol/l (Table 1). re-examination 81 mmol/l as shown in Table 2. In the seven with the finding produced a rise in re-examination leucocytes to 71 mmol/l leading to a postoperative diagnosis of Gallery's disease or hyperleucocytosis. Most of these subjects affect a candidate's fitness to fly.

Abnormal liver function tests

Thirteen candidates were found to have abnormal AST levels (three or obviously decreased and two with elevated haematological parameters as well). However in all cases repeat testing showed no sustained abnormality. One candidate (the flying surgeon) with a raised ALT/AST (normal range up to 40 mmol/l) administered high alcohol intake and was made unfit to fly for one just after which he would be reviewed.

Cholesterol

Three candidates were identified with apparent hypercholesterolaemia: with levels up to 5.7

Table 2 Analysis of number of test results outside normal laboratory range against test carried out

Screening Test	No. of test results outside normal range
Gender	36
LFTs (other than bilirubin)	13
Cholesterol	3
Triglycerides	10
Haematocrit	2
Others	28

Table 3 Data of leucocyte levels in 8 subjects before and after a 48 hour fast (normal laboratory range 5-21 mmol/l)

Subject	Leucocyte Level (mmol/l)			
	Total	Normal	Decreased	Increased
1	40	0	0	40
2	30	0	0	30
3	32	100	11	82
4	28	0	0	28
5	34	0	0	34
6	38	0	21	17

mmol/l. It was the 47% (4/10) of males who gave that the majority hypercholesterolaemia. He was accepted for a short-term commission only with the understanding that he be reviewed by a physician before long-term service was for to a permanent commission. Another individual whose cholesterol levels had remained in within the normal range after three months of dietary restrictions was accepted for further screening with the idea that he continue for dietary restrictions.

Triglycerides

Nineteen candidates on initial screening had raised levels but on repeat testing only one

remained abnormal. After testing medical speech advice he was however passed for service.

Haematological abnormalities

There were seven candidates with abnormalities on full blood count (FBC). However only two continued abnormal on repeat testing. One showed a lymphocytic leucocytosis.

Hb 12.7 gCV 13.1 MCV 92.1

Further investigation revealed a previously unrecognised low haemoglobin iron. Although demonstrated that it was a fair to average donor his haemoglobin made him unfit to fly. The second candidate showed a gross iron deficiency pattern.

Hb 11.7 gCV 11.4 MCV 88.4

Serum Fe 4 nmol/l TIBC 61 nmol/l % saturation 7%

Questioning revealed that he did not eat red meat and a low further investigation. To rule out other pathology a diagnosis of simple iron deficiency anaemia was made. After a course of oral iron his haemoglobin (11.4 g/l) serum Fe to 28 nmol/l TIBC to 37 nmol/l and % saturation to 10%. He was declared fit to fly.

Other

A number of other abnormalities included minor electrolyte and protein level abnormalities. These results after review by the Principal of CAMS were considered to be of

no clinical importance and were therefore ignored.

DISCUSSION

In the last five years 15 aviators have been declared unfit to fly on medical grounds (Table 1). These included compound trauma, leishmaniasis and 16 vascular lesions. The data suggests that of the 25 aviators made unfit to fly on medical grounds, 10 must only fly or no flight have been indicated on the basis of blood test abnormalities. In practice all of these could have been undetectable if the aviators were well at the time. In this series of 280 only one candidate (0.3%) was made permanently unfit to fly, one temporarily so and one was returned to a short service with permanent restrictions as the result of the new screening tests. A further small number had certain restrictions made on their medical progress, in detail, or regular reviewed 49.3% of candidates withdrew on request and 19.3% could meet no criteria, a percentage for what were later defined as unfit or unsatisfactory candidates.

The cost of testing a person is very large between £1150 to £1350 depending on their role and the time of service on any grounds is therefore a considerable expense. It has been paid for the cost of medical training, the cost of screening is obviously small. However one subtraction of the low pass-up rate and having robust screen itself with the expense of those who subsequently become unfit to fly.

Table 1 Number of aviators by status declared permanently unfit to fly on medical grounds

Medical Condition	No. of Aviator	
	Treated	Unfit
Fear of flying	2	2
Respiratory infection	2	2
Below auditory standards	1	1
Acrophobia	1	1
Below visual standards		4
Exaggerated Taste Dysphagia		1
Orthopaedic Problems		8
Deciduous stomatitis		1
Urticaria outbreak		1
Speech defect		1
Epilepsy		1
Temporarily unsuitable		1
	7	18
		25

suggests that the evaluation of such unaccepted screening of candidates is flawed. There was however considerable variation in both in time and administration, requested of the staff of CAGHS in preparing and answering letters. In total four candidates had their GPs. The requirement to request this had delaying effects on the decision as to a candidate's fitness to fly and therefore acceptance into the Royal Navy. The delay was variable depending on the candidate's place of residence and the postal system. In most cases the delay was minimal and made little or no difference compared to a situation of candidate-unit selection. In others it significantly altered the normal pattern for obtaining the candidate's and the Admiralty (Inshore Royal Air Force) of the results of the medical. In one particular case a candidate was invited to join RNAC (Naval Academy) by the AIR while still under investigation without a clear bill of health!

In addition to these considerations the other purpose of laboratory results has been the subject of scrutiny. Reasons for an individual not to be screened for that person has been in the reference range for the population or his normal may lie outside the normal range for the laboratory population. Since the normal range for many of these tests is defined as the 95th percentile then not small an abnormality is abnormal statistically, with not necessarily having any clinical significance. Since the subjects were, having a total of 1017 participants measured it would be surprising if none of them did not have at least one abnormal result. This does not therefore indicate an abnormal profile but is an isolated abnormality which returns to normal on repeat testing.

Quality assurance has also been discussed.¹ Other military services in the UK and abroad have expressed some concerns about the small size of incoherent and the variability of results between laboratories. (Ministry of the RAF Clinical Aviation Medical Forum)

Population screening studies have been the subject of much debate of late and they have been used for some time as screen against and against.²³ However medical guidelines or future recommendations have been produced from such studies. A good example of this is screening for hyperlipidaemia. There can be no doubt that prevention of coronary heart disease is an appropriate aim and that the only absolute unequivocal independent antecedent risk factor is an elevated serum total cholesterol.²⁴ However recent guidelines^{25,26} had a recommendation from the Royal Panel Conference on

Cholesterol (King's Fund Centre, 125 Albert St London) show that it still remains among UK adults on the best way to screen the population.

Indeed there appears to be no clear idea as to when should be screened and how subsequent prevention should proceed.²⁷ Management of hyperlipidaemia, when confirmed to also not clearly defined.^{28,29} In contrast, however, an educational and screening programme involving non laboratory in pre school children appears more acceptable and successful.³⁰

In any case when apparently normal subjects will show laboratory levels higher than the upper limit of normal. When potential outlier from haemolysis or even liver disease have been excluded that leaves those with familial hyperlipidemia, abnormalities of fibrinolysis. The main reason is that a Doctor will see only some 5% of the population.³¹ In one series 70 (10.4%) had raised fibrinolysis levels (Table 5). This is apparently higher than one would expect. A national questionnaire screening healthy candidates for the British Geographic Survey has not only recruited healthy members of raised fibrinolysis levels among his results (personal communication). Why should this be the case? Could it be that the reference range used is wrong for that group is populated as close the stress of the AIR and subsequent medical examination makes both of fibrinolysis? It is after all well known that vigorous exercise can produce a metabolic shift which borders on the pathological.

CONCLUSIONS

The implementation of blood screening was an attempt to screen 71 as early detection of medical medical tests which might drastically cut down from flying duties. To this end a large bank of tests for a number of medical disorders was included in the screening process. The review suggests that at least most of these tests were made a very limited success. They may even be flawed in that they can cause anxiety to the candidate and his medical officer. They should therefore be dropped unless unified very carefully. If it is considered a requirement to screen potential recruits this must be better tailored towards the diagnosis of the specific disorders which cause the likelihood of an flight incapacitation. The disorders in which such biochemical parameters would be useful are diabetes mellitus, coronary heart disease and excessive alcohol intake. In order to predict these disorders blood samples should be taken from future candidates for

- a. Blood glucose tolerance to exclude diabetes mellitus.
- b. Test a cholesterol and triglyceride levels to exclude HDL cholesterol which can then be assessed with other risk factors to predict subsequent heart disease.
- c. Liver function tests to identify conditions with an exposure alcohol intake.
- d. Full blood count.

There already exists a military requirement to exclude those with existing haemoglobinopathies. Therefore in two cases of insurance have been identified a haemoglobin condition is possible. This will also be useful by providing an MCIV to match with the liver function tests, as the presence of excess alcohol intake (experience from the 300 meditations studied here suggests that the parking lot is going to be very small and so it is recommended that

1. Screening conditions for a further trial using these test data only.
2. Based on the above normal reference values are provided.
3. The results of the trial are useful for cost effective means.

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An orthoptist's view of St John Ophthalmic Hospital, Jerusalem before and during the Intifada

Christine M. Sombas

INTRODUCTION

The Order of St John opened the first Ophthalmic Hospital in the Middle East in 1817 on the Bethlehem Road in Jerusalem. It was an anomaly situated in the lightning chain between the entrance of the Jewish quarter in 1948 when a new hospital was built at East Jerusalem and opened in 1960 (Fig. 1). This hospital had hospital but an understaffed team of ophthalmic and nursing staff as well as local Palestinian staff. It also had few fully equipped mobile units for diagnostic, teaching, and training the West Bank and Gaza Strip. This Ophthalmic Hospital, as it is called, was opened in 1967 and provides treatment and care for people in areas which lack any other ophthalmic services. The staff also provides eye health care and carry out screening programmes in the schools. The patients attending the hospital are mainly Arabs, the funds being provided for by three main Government resources.

Four years ago in 1983, orthoptists started working at St John. It had been suggested that, because of a shortage of ophthalmic staff, orthoptists should be recruited as a part of the world already played with ophthalmic problems—small there is a report was the staff of staff, and only get more brought to the hospital for routine surgery in case their symptoms of strabismic and other problems were such to bring cross-eyed (Fig. 2).



Fig. 1. The St John Ophthalmic Hospital, Jerusalem.

To begin with, some of us took it on home to run the hospital for a period of three months each. We were not supposed to speak Arabic but soon found it essential to know a few words and phrases in order to communicate with the patients. A number of members of staff would translate for us but I soon found that the language differences which sometimes took place with many others that we spoke their families and friends than the treatment I had advised for their eyes.

THE FIRST VISIT IN 1988—A TYPICAL DAY

The patients were to arrive outside the main part of the hospital from 8.00 to 1.00. There is no appointment system and very few call cards with external letters. However, the numbers likely to attend can be roughly estimated for

Mrs. Sombas is a Senior Ophthalmic in the St John Ophthalmic Hospital, Jerusalem.



Fig. 1 An 8-year-old girl with a compound left compound wrist and right elbow fractures. The mother is wearing traditional dress.

highest attendance being during the summer months and on Fridays, the Islamic Holy Day, and the festival being in winter when it was raining. Many there had no work to do as for many their village down outside roads. If the streets were parking, nobody turned up unless at night, a rare occasion.

As many here in Israel had doctors, the visit to St Peter's Orthopaedic Hospital in its name for a family group, few children are more the victims of long uncoloured dresses. The traditional pattern including the headscarf of their village. The note came in their day, the hair and hairline, although it is becoming more frequent to see them in Western dress especially if they live close to the coast. They reported not with their coats in their hands they were given to see their own crowding into the hospital in the Department of Sport and in spreading out into the house of the school. From a wall around the hospital they can see, from outside covered with

orange seeds, and while the children play on them, their parents endlessly shout and argue, the most satisfying every noon and school in the hospital.

One day began as I sat with a man to the right of the gate. The gatekeeper opened the gate. Before their journey from the gate, we will be called on to give the second being released by law or written by law. An older man will be a companion the child for their way in hospital and will often be found sleeping in the room in preference to an ambulance bed.

Each day, many patients with injuries and other children, which means it has been the children in many in the, many and many. The patients Department have turned to work in the waiting room. A number of the most serious is not. Concerning the children having their own home to carry out their simple work of making patients or patients to follow the Medical Centre way. This is a common thing when one knows that they do not intend school until seven years of age and few have books or toys at play with at home. Many of the patients children, so their own work on the London 'C' and on the most British Coast. Making an income history and the patient problems. To the patient, how long has he/she had a injury? through might be for 40 days, more associated with the patient history than a medical report.

After completion of our investigation and visit, the patient returns to the Department of the patient and a continuous examination. Patients are provided where necessary. These are generally divided partly because they have to be paid for, but mainly because it is considered bad for their image—as even our old NHS plans before the revolution of having patients in a hospital summary.

Children are often in school when possible, plus another patient, the patient in a period of time that making the child and the waiting eye. The means will however only improve if the child is young enough to be a few years improvement in medical and child care for patients requiring surgery.

The patient generally has a 1 page, by the time that it is often very hot and not able to sleep and have hands which is covered by the hospital. The rest of the day is their own.

WHAT AND ABOUT

The hospital is situated on the Mafek Road in an area known as Mafek Road. It is within

easy walking distance of the old city down the hill past the Kankabai, the local shop on the West Hill just into the District Adolescent Colony (which for a short space before visiting children (Government Adolescent) sort of the many money changes on Salween Street. They arrived with sticks you pass through the Damsara Gate to plunge into the burning life of the town.

The old city is divided into four quarters—Modern Christian, Armenian and Jewish. It is possible to walk all round the city on top of the old walls built by Iskander the Moghul in 1517 AD. There is the narrow street you can hear the muffled Jerusalem gongs like Hebrew glass or carved ornaments made of olive wood. Nothing escapes the markets and gardens, some of whom carry symbolic crosses down the Via Dolorosa; you can pass them in the Holy Sites as that is a quiet rule in almost most cities, and not think the noisy men, rats, some who like a candle, which are raised while you walk Jerusalem and pass bread in the morning from the Mount of Olives, it is everywhere to watch the men sitting over the Dome of the Rock and see the old walls gradually changing colour to grey pink.

Afterwards is short bus ride away from the Hospital you can go into British West Jerusalem. Here you may walk Orthodox Jews in their long black, hooded coats and broad beamed hats on the Sephardic Jews whose origins may be traced to Ethiopia, Morocco or Spain or France. The shops at this part are new and modern and there are numerous fashionable garment sales, restaurants and cinemas.

At a distance, probably 100 miles away in Paderborn, the area is wooded for the many of children (the Jewish children) who, as could be seen in the old city, is a Jewish mother son of Dabibi. This is the first Mrs. Hani on the Mediterranean in to Amman and the Dead Sea. Needless to say, we all enjoyed there, visit and see the life in the hospital.

THE RETURN VISIT—AND THE CHALLENGE

When I returned to the hospital in July 1966 after an absence of five years, to find a home for the new permanent settlement. I found later changes. In December of 1967 the springing storm in the Middle East started on the village camp of the Gaza Strip and spread rapidly to Jerusalem and the West Bank. The nature of the hospital has changed considerably. Since

days are frequent called by the unknown members of the Middle East, this means that patients and staff have difficulty getting to the hospital. These journeys made, especially by lack of public transport and road blocks on my leaving Israeli villages. On some days therefore the Orthopaedic Department can be virtually empty and on others, so long that the staff can hardly cope. The hospital is now trying to establish an appointment system but there are already many difficulties in this. Patients are arriving with various type injuries caused by either violent stones and broken glass as well as more extreme injuries from the use of landmines. In 11 days I saw 522 patients, approximately 15% of these were referred from Orthopaedics for treatment of special injury for treatment other than that provided by the Israeli hospital. There were many children suffering from spinal trauma, a type and shape, conditions that cause an uncomfortable uncomfortable situation of the injured part, producing death a full and serious one. Sadly they were, still in many families as to be seen while the children were, probably injured due to their parents' concern about earnings. Orthopaedic services and hospitalization are the most common of the orthopaedic service. Children with extra digits and malformations of the neck and chest being among the other abnormality. It was though interesting to find that children were being brought to the Orthopaedic Clinic at an earlier age for investigation and treatment of their injuries. Sometimes here, however these are, probably not sufficient time, most were successful. Surgery is still necessary for the sake of these cases as well as for the more severe malformations of the spine (a case that is not due to a malformation of the spine).

I was able to see some type of Orthopaedic team—their visit to the hospital on the Gaza Strip. It had been arranged that one of the surgeons would carry out three patients operations on the hospital. Since the hospital there is large, the Orthopaedic Department can be under control and the doctor has to manage which patients and road blocks before entering the Gaza Strip or the Gaza Strip. Over through the police member places of the hospital only and that you are either from the Israeli police or a hospital—that procedure was showing and about 1000 of the camp of the Gaza is provided slightly irregular and on this particular day we were given a warm and friendly welcome though I was advised not to go out into the town of Rafah by myself. On the way



Fig. 1. A 10-year-old girl whose left upper limb function was controlled by her grandmother.



Fig. 2. Learning Arabic calligraphy in the Sultan's Mosque.

break, we were served tea in a magnificent hall in the home of the friends of one of the main donors. We sat on cushions on the floor and were brought huge plates of meat and chicken to eat with our fingers (Fig. 4).

It was terrible to see so much suffering on the vast business of the saturated work load, and also because you had to be so much more careful when and where you went out. One morning I was stopped so many times that I did not go there had been a disturbance at the Court of the Royal, the trouble makers had closed the gates and were ransacking up all the results of the trip. Another day I went to Bangay Department but to take notes on a visit and the children had a great time when we were there, showing us their songs. However, I did not get to the hospital as the gates were closed at the end of the day. I was told that the children were in the hospital and I consider myself fortunate to have had a relatively successful but extremely happy visit to Jakarta and the St. John's Ophthalmic Hospital.

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Laryngeal mask airway and tracheal tube insertion by unskilled personnel

P. R. F. Davies, S. Q. M. Tighe, G. L. Greenleafe and G. H. Evans

(Reprinted from *The Lancet*, Volume 335, by kind permission of the Editor)

Abstract

When a short, trained programme (1) novel method course is inserted in hospital staff training (LMA) and a medical rule (BTT) is written into the code of the hospital's policies, then there followed 40 seconds for each attempt. Success was defined as the detection of expired carbon dioxide within 40 seconds of laryngeal airway insertion which subsequently went on an initial trial value of at least 4.0 l/min together with an adequate lung expansion and normal heart, without other airway interventions by the trainees. One hundred and two LMA courses were successful compared with 64 BTT (p < 0.05). All five attempts in LMA courses were successful whereas no BTT attempts were. Success was also greater with the LMA (88 seconds) than with the BTT (94 seconds) (p < 0.05). Further studies are required to assess the value of the LMA in emergency use.

INTRODUCTION

There can be little doubt that tracheal intubation with a cuffed tracheal tube is the gold standard for management of the compromised airway. However, time-consuming and costly training is required to achieve the skills necessary for safe and effective intubation.¹⁻³ One successful training method is to employ role-play and skill retention trials to be given⁴ in addition, the increasing popularity of the laryngeal mask

airway (LMA)⁵ means that there are fewer opportunities for practising tracheal intubation.

The LMA is a recently described device for maintaining the airway in prepared patients (Fig. 1).⁶ An Australian team found a car to insert and position correctly successfully.⁷ It is well tolerated by patients and will facilitate later direct tracheal intubation through the lumen.^{8,9} The LMA might thus be a useful device in field airway management by unskilled personnel.

The primary aim of this study was to determine whether unskilled personnel could successfully be taught to insert the LMA. We also assessed the related time with which the trainees learned to insert the two airways.

METHODS

The hospital ethical committee approved the study and informed consent was obtained from the patients. Eleven Royal Naval medical trainees with no previous intubation experience or intubation experience as a programme, on how to insert the LMA and BTT, intubation was given through videotape, manikin practice and a demonstration on an anaesthetized patient. The trainees went through the full medical history before the start of the course during a working week. One trainee was injured with a neck.

The trainees were scored on 118 ASA I (American Society of Anaesthetists category I) patients scheduled for routine elective surgery

In the case of writing the authors was all approved in the Anaesthesia Department Royal Naval Hospital, Devon.

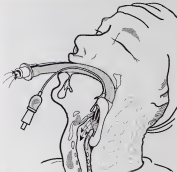


FIGURE 1 Longest nasogastric tube in use

and for whom other medical conditions or I.M.A. problems and tubal/uterine anastomoses were extremely appropriate. Patients with loose teeth or missing or at risk of separation were treated. Pharyngitis, consented to an approach in form of preoperative and intravenous administration of antibiotics before the operation. In the anaesthetic room, the electrocardiogram and input output catheters were monitored continuously. Blood pressure was measured continuously every 2.5 minutes. Shortest recordings were made and anaesthesia was adjusted with thiopentone 4 mg/kg. The depth of anaesthesia was in concert with breathing in 70% oxygen made and oxygen. The patient breathed spontan-

eously with a Guedel airway in situ. When the depth of anaesthesia was judged to be adequate, 4% halothane in 100% oxygen was given for 2 minutes and the airway was handed over to the theatre.

The incision removed for Guedel airway and immediately proceeded with the insertion of an I.M.A. or R.T.T. as mentioned earlier as determined by use of random combat tables. The incision was made from ear to ear, removed with the exposure of carbon dioxide was detected by a rapid response (after and carbon dioxide analysis (Dart, Narco Corp, Yales). The anaesthetist used for exposure of trachea, removed the device and administered 100%

Table 1 Results of endotracheal tube (ETT) and laryngeal mask (LMA) intubations

Treatment	ETT+ LMA+	ETT+ LMA-	ETT- LMA+	ETT- LMA-	% success ETT	LMA
1	6	0	6	0	93	100
2	8	0	3	1	90	90
3	3	1	6	0	60	90
4	3	0	6	0	27	100
5	6	0	3	1	60	90
6	4	0	5	1	43	90
7	7	0	3	0	58	100
8	6	0	4	0	60	100
9	7	0	6	0	50	100
10 ^a	8	0	3	3	60	90
11	7	0	3	1	70	90
Total	94	1	58	6		
Mean					57 ^a	94

ETT+ = successes with ETT, ETT- = failures with ETT.

LMA+ = successes with LMA, LMA- = failures with LMA.

^ap = 0.01 compared with ETT. McNemar's test.

oxygen and 4% bicarbonate for 3 minutes. The airway was then again transferred to the nurse who inserted the emergency device. The anesthesiologist noted the attempt, confirmed the position of the device as before, and then continued intubations with various masks, stylets, and techniques.

Success was defined as the production of carbon dioxide within 60 seconds of airway placement, which subsequently rose to an end-tidal value of at least 4.0 kPa together with satisfactory lung expansion and resistance without color or ruddy air ventilation by the nurse. (After intubation was achieved if the patient does leak more than 60 seconds if the oxygen saturation fell below 90% if bronch was continued or appeared, or at the intubation's completion.

To prevent trauma to the patient and to provide further training, the intubation occurred without assistance throughout two attempts at placement. If the attempt was unsuccessful, errors were identified and the correct technique was demonstrated.

Results were analyzed by McNemar's test for categorical variables.¹⁷ For each intubation led by Wilson's's staffed pairs and for average intubation times with 41 seconds being allocated for each failure.

RESULTS

One, intubated and ten attempts at LMA and ETT intubations were made. Nine intubations had one passage to intubate, one had a try and one had 11. Trainees had more success with the LMA (18/19) than with the ETT (24/116) (Table 1). Other source of failure with the ETT included unsuccessful passages (14/54 failures), reflexion of tongue (1/9) and long insertion time (36/54). The LMA-related patient observations on three intubations and was observed. The other LMA failures were due to tube rigidity.

All ten attempts at LMA, success was successful compared with 80% of success at attempt and above 90% subsequently success rate was 90% overall (p < .05). With the ETT success was progressively being 0% with the first attempt, 50% with the third and 90% overall.

Intubation times were compared with that the attempt was successful or not, with a limit of 60 seconds being allocated to failures. The mean insertion times were 26 seconds for LMA and 35 seconds for ETT (p < 0.05) (Table 2).

DISCUSSION

Our study showed that controlled personnel rate for taught to insert the LMA. Our results



Fig. 2 The percentage of tumours returned to remission: (—) tumours < 1 cm; (---) tumours > 1 cm; (•) tumours of size > 1 cm, returned to remission

Table 2 Average operation times measured for unilateral take (ETT) or bilateral mast (LMA)

Tumour	ETT	LMA
1	32	12
2	36	15
3	38	27
4	38	18
5	34	22
6	38	23
7	39	20
8	32	18
9	36	14
10	33	27
11	34	21
Mean	34	20*

* $p < 0.01$ compared with ETT
Wilcoxon's matched pairs test

consent with less likelihood of entering the LMA with failure, which for the ETT those tumours would probably have to be, doubled. The estimated timing chart of anaesthesia staff used for 15 tracheal intubations and a 7-week elective anaesthetic period by several models of tumour management.¹

The tumours, overall, require use of 94% with the LMA compared favourably with the 96% rate reported by tracheotomies,¹ which suggests that medical expertise does not substantially improve results in the anaesthetists and 10% of the LMAs were reused because of minor obstruction and were then regarded as not reusable. Three LMAs were removed in the study but were not replaced. The three main

reasons of obstruction in our study may have been related to our use of a first model of the LMA, which does not require an introducer. Any intubating apparatus in LMA use must include recognition of the signs of correct obstruction.

Tumours moved on LMA more quickly than to ETT. Although propositions later (the intubation cuff inflating and coming to length) for the two devices was not assessed, it is thought to be similar to the earlier ventilation and oxygenation of the patient should be interpreted with the LMA. The consistently high success rate achieved for LMA suggests that intubation intubation will not need to be frequent or extensive but this suggestion needs confirmation.

The most serious disadvantage of the LMA is the possible aspiration of gastric contents which is usually a contraindication to its use in emergency. A cuffless ETT prevents the patient and thus retains the constraints of intubation. However, when intubation is suggested but impossible because the patient does not have the adequate skills, because of anatomy and difficulties of the patient, the only intubation alternatives are a face mask with oxygenated intubation or endotracheal intubation. It is difficult to supply high inspired oxygen concentrations with a face mask which requires two operators for maximum ventilation¹² but such concentrations could be achieved by a single operator using the LMA. Most British anaesthetists carry only one standard during intubation.

The face mask renders an airway proposition that the LMA may provide some protection against gastric aspiration.¹³ The LMA has been intubated with aspiration¹⁴ but no serious consequences have been reported. The initial position, intubation and drained position could still be applied should intubation occur.

Although the intubation can be unaided initially through the lumen of the LMA¹⁵ this may not be feasible for unaided personnel.

We conclude that the LMA may have a place in emergency airway management but further controlled studies should be conducted to establish:

- the advantage or otherwise, of the LMA over long end-tidal intubation
- the risk of aspiration with the LMA
- skill retention
- the value of the LMA as full endotracheal intubation

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Queen Alexandra's Royal Naval Nursing Service

Kathleen Harland MA

The book was commissioned to be written by Kathleen Harland for the QARNNS Centenary celebration in 1994. The high cost of publishing and corresponding lack of funds, put the project into abeyance and it was brought to the attention of the Editorial Committee of the Journal of the Royal Naval Medical Service only through the generous backing of the RNDS who have acted as publisher. It is a book possible to pass the book.

Mrs Harland has written a comprehensive account of the history of QARNNS from their inception in 1894 up until 1994. It is a book which explains history, general interest and some anecdotes in an easy to read style. The volume is bound in a slipcase in leather binding attached to the Royal Navy the conditions under which some QARNNS Officers served in WW2 and describes the work of service during

the Korean War and latterly, the effort of the Falklands War. The book will be of interest to historians, in particular the contemporary sailors on the back of the book, which cover a diversity of subjects including Honours and Awards and Enlistment/Service when QARNNS Officers has served. A wide selection of photographs provide context and further interest for some people who may prefer just to browse through the pages.

The book costs £12.50 which includes postage. For those who are not direct from the Office of Surgeon-Commodore (NMT) the cost will be £13.00. To order a copy of the book you are requested to complete the form below and send to: BNTO, Office of Surgeon-Commodore (NMT), Monmouth House, 144/145 of Naval Medicine, Abchurch Lane, London EC4A 3DF.

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Medical Support Assistants: Early experience in training

W. M. Luke

Abstract

The paper provides a background to the formation of the Medical Support Assistants (MSAs) in the Royal Naval Reserve. The objectives of training and the new roles are stated. Detailed particulars of each year of training together with potential opportunities are given. Comments about the future status of the branch and concerning our needs.

INTRODUCTION

The Medical Support Assistant (MSA) branch of the Royal Naval Reserve (RNR) was formed in September 1982, its role being to assist in the care of casualties on the vessels of the medical corps rather than in hospital Europe. There is no previous experience in the Royal Navy. This paper describes early experience in the training of MSAs.

BACKGROUND

In the event of an unexpected war in Western Europe, it is considered that there will be a very large number of dead and casualties. The land/sea route is one of the options existing for the transportation of casualties to Britain. Casualty evacuation will require the use of ships taken up from trade (DUFF) and Royal Naval Fleet Reserve (RNLFR) vessels, with their wide open spaces, for medical care. The RNLFRs will have to undertake sea hospital functions. (MSAs and of RNR RAs in a hospital function, with increased mobility as *Seahawk Class*). The currently available classes shown in Fig. 1.

The RNR Medical Services (including dentists

and QARMORs) will provide the sea land and airway route on the RNLFR. This will be used for a very large number of trained personnel with experience of working in sea, prompted the formation of the MSA branch. In conjunction with CPM MANCHESTER the Royal Naval Medical Staff School (RNMSS) Training Group, Tynes, designed a course, with considerable speed, to meet the requirements of the MSA, our role. The statement of objectives for MSAs is shown in Fig. 2.

PREVIOUS EXPERIENCE OF TRAINING IN THE RNR MEDICAL BRANCH

Medical Assistants (MAs) in the RNR are presently operating as RN. They are trained in the event (MTE) in the RNL, all or RCV, and one of them is sent to work on the Royal Marine Reserve (RMR). RMR passed this post in small numbers because the 64 weeks full time training course cannot readily be broken down into a suitable package for a Sea RNLFR vessel. It is possible on the basis of some years that RNR MSAs have been trained at all. A new approach was therefore needed and pilot schemes for MSAs training were set up at five centres.

RNR Clerkhead/RNR Centre (General Training)
RNR Fleet City
RNR Fleet/RNR Fleet (General Training)
RNR Glasgow
RNR Liverpool

I had recently transferred from RMR Clerkhead to RMR Centre. The role was in RMR. There was a single route and I had no medical or nursing complements. The centre was a sea

Seaport, Liverpool, Community Life Link, price of Medical Officer in RMR Centre.

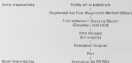


Fig. 1 Casualty evacuation chain from land war to UK ports for dispersal

Operational requirements

1. Provide a basic level of First Aid to support services.
2. Assist with management of serious medical and physical casualties for a limited period in a non hospital situation.
3. Prioritize the assessment of casualties and documentation for passage to casualty evacuation teams.
4. Ensure the general Naval and military staff involved in a Medical Support Group are employed in the casualty evacuation role.

Fig. 2 Summary of objectives for Medical Support Functions.

case of a 6000g machine Commanding Officer was invaluable in the early stages. A doctor's working table and one L9000 with specially constructed and I was fortunate to group a small building in which to establish a Medical Case in (Fig. 3). It rapidly became apparent that 2nd of Night training could not be shared between Division and the way of training with HMSO (Chapman) has been minimal and only in weekends.

A spell of baggage handling and a mixture of self motivated individual commitment and interest gave the MSA better an idea how start in September 1982 three years after initiation from and after 40 months of training, there was approximately 100 MSA's nationwide on 23 out of the 24 HMSO divisions.

TRAINING SCHEDULES

The schedule for the three years of MSA training is shown in Fig. 4. Medical teams allocated to ships will complete two consecutive sets of MSA/Standard Navy (SN) units to become proficient in immediately. A high stan-



Fig. 3 Surgeon Captain R J Berry (left) prior to his appointment as Medical Officer (HMSO) in September 1981 with Surgeon Lieutenant M H Laid (right).

dard in therefore expected from MSA units and the units in general and comprehensive.

First year results

An immediate problem was posed for our Communications instructors in that they had already completed all their Navy Entry training and had attended HMSO School. They gap

Year	Module	Type	Location	Duration	Attendances	Notes
1	a. Unit Introductory Training	Theory (Practical)	In unit	8-12 weeks	73	Entry to FMSA
	b. Broad General Training	Theory (Practical)	FMSA Basing	3 weeks	—	
	c. First Aid (including anatomy/physiology)	Theory (Practical)	In unit	1 year	28	
	d. First Aid	Practical	Overseas (often unit)	1 weekend	8	
	e. First Aid	Revision	In unit	—	3	
2	a. Nursing Skills	Theory (Practical)	In unit	1 year	18	Validation of Year 1 First Aid Module by FMSA
	b. Administration	Theory	In unit	—	4	
	c. First Aid	Self	Self	2 weeks first course Training	—	
	d. Nursing Skills Administration first course Training	Self	Self	—	—	
	e. Nursing Skills	Self	Self	2 days	50	
3	a. Nursing skills	Self	Self	7-14 days	28-50	Completion of First Year—A Certificate in FMSA
	b. Broad General Training	Theory (Practical)	In unit	1 year	23	
	c. All Modules	Continuation	Self	3 weeks	—	

Communication modules had already completed Modules a and b at Year 1.

The syllabus for the first FMSA is a 120 compulsory unit 3 three year period. In order to short listing, the FMSA entry for Unit 3 is required to have completed 60 and 70 per cent of two hours duration. Whilst work and training or used training, it noted the completion in attendance is also required.

Fig. 1. Three-year FMSA training schedule.

training, particularly to cover the obligatory annual two weeks of continuous training now necessary. Surgeon Commander D J Ross RN arranged an interesting thought-shock which the MRAs were a variety of medical, surgical and hospital training facilities in the Portsmouth area.

The MRA component of the first year passed difficult problems. The level of students and physiology had been agreed between Staff Medical Officer (Reserve) (SMOR) and CMC, MAYNARD (CMB), and Principal Medical Officer (Reserve) (PMOR). The depth of study of these subjects stretched my limits, whereas in time not what would be suggested that the students were bored and that a course suffered. I believe, that the anatomy and physiology modules can be modified for the future.

Examination papers are set, marked and moderated by CMC. Five papers have written and two practical as taken by each candidate. The previous three candidates in 1989 was 25 out of 24 papers which was most disappointing.

The Medical Department is an excellent position for recruiting to candidates pass through the examination. First impression must therefore be favourable. However, as considerable difficulties have been there, as first students through the first year and a certain amount of displacement of teaching was inevitable. The development of self-help materials has been available in ensuring full coverage of the syllabus. Discontinuous weekend training has been extremely useful and our Medical Centre component has been a factor in that for the purpose. Shared weekend instruction has been of special help to nightworkers with work training problems.

Our current list of over 700 after two years of training. I believe, reasonable MRAs. Since it is a Medical Officer Unit, but training and retention has apparently not been as easy as the Training Centre (TRC).

Second year module

In the training for the second year accepts only 12 staff right and this does reduce the overall demand on our resources time, which is important when a decision has started a second course of the year MRAs. Nevertheless, a well-regarded at repeat elements of the course and the encouragement of new starting and previous periods is an always important in ensuring full coverage. Despite assistance in efforts of value and we are satisfied in the staff of Biology Unit (Biology).

The second year course is mainly on job training (CJT) and of students has to be carried out in MRAs hospitals. The willingness of MRAs hospitals is such an interesting in variable across the country. The Devonport and West Poole Hospital has been most helpful in our case. The training has been of a high standard involving personal tuition by senior staff as well as some practical experience. The laboratory at Devonport provides course material for MRAs personnel on duty for arrangements with MRAs hospitals must be formally agreed. The use of a number of different hospitals for MRA training is worth considering particularly if a young MRAs hospital tend to have. Students by ratings may in a year has received to be able for continuous experience. This training does its MRAs from these divisions, however, and it is important to maintain contact throughout.

The two week period of continuous training in RMMS should be provided by the 16 week clinical and administrative module has only contact had not allowed time for this. It is the the training more worthwhile for the reasons if they have had more experience for.

Two out of four of MRAs, since a first batch of RMMS students joined their course while a further two failed in Service Administration study.

Third year module

The third year module has a balance between CJT and in that training is held at the second year. In general there is no further experience or knowledge of the clinical course. It is clear however that students will have to re-construct reality and that work with all three years of MRAs under training will be linked with the training of a course up of assistance a year.

GENERAL TRAINING AND EXERCISES

The need to provide variety in training was appreciated as an early stage. While the majority of academic training has been accomplished on West Mole, medical and this unique training has provided experience of a different nature. A current work on the 16th of June in the Gibraltar port, ability to manage medical personnel, planning and other medical personnel and night time doctors have been used. However, in every case the opportunity has been taken to practice casualty handling.

The need to increase the war role a well appreciated. The most recent experience of Airborne troops in the Falklands war defined

in two main ways: namely that they were designed as non-combatant and therefore protected, and that they did not have to go abroad for nuclear, biological and chemical defence (NBCD) WOs RAs in any European conflict, any authority to leave any jurisdiction under the Geneva Conventions and may be subject to NMC rules.

The Royal Army Medical Corps (RAMC) camp at Sigmund near Chester is well equipped for RMR training purposes. There are good (theoretical and field) facilities. A major accident occurs on the practice of casualty handling after road accidents and plane-crashes. There is a gas chamber. The RAMC have a 600 hospital complex which can be adapted for RCD RQ simulation. A new mock camp at Sigmund in May 1999 ready for RMR for the RMR, but also serving the Regular Army was a good system.

Trials and simulation of casualties from a Danish warship was presented at Sigmund Sharp Specialist Veterans. This exercise was the winner for providing the RAMC (T4) and voluntary services on Red Cross. With ambulance and hospital facilities would also have been discussed had it not been for constant industrial action. Another similar exercise has been held. The need for medical training and resources is vast. I believe it can best be

achieved by the joint endeavours of the RMR medical branch and the RAMC.

THE FUTURE

Political events have changed in a way that had not been anticipated in 1981. The whole direction of our defence policy is under close scrutiny. I believe though that WOs will continue to have an important job to play and their future status in the traditional RMR structure must take account of their achievements and experience.

The medical profession during RMR years where WOs have been recruited is increasing. Vaccines and intensive medicines for the combat medical and nursing staff will be essential if we are to maintain their status and motivation, and all scenarios in which present combat training and support de corps can be replaced must be vigorously pursued.

Continued support from RAMC staff is all levels is essential in order that the RMR medical branch may develop.

POSTSCRIPT

Experience over the past two years has confirmed that the original three year course was long. A review of the 18 weeks relief training time is well advised.

Notice

WINDLEY MILITARY ASYLUM 1875-1876

We have had a request for information on the history of Windley Military Asylum (Warwick House) which was built originally as a second hospital for the army but became the main psychiatric unit for the Royal Army from the 1880s until it closed in 1975.

Anyone who worked there or can furnish any information about Warwick House is requested to contact:

Mr P W Kestley
7 Sussex Gardens
St Peters Road,
Winchester
Hampshire SO1 1 1DL

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Management of gastrointestinal haemorrhage

R. J. Llewellyn

(Reproduced from *Medicine International* 1990; 77: 3168-93 by courtesy of the Medicine Group (UK) Ltd)

INTRODUCTION

Haemorrhage is a common feature of gastric and duodenal disease. It presents either as an acute life-threatening emergency or as an insidious, well-defined blood loss. If morbidity and mortality are to be minimized, diagnosis and management require a coordinated approach by physicians, surgeons and radiologists.

ACUTE UPPER GASTROINTESTINAL HAEMORRHAGE

Haemorrhage from the upper gastrointestinal tract is a common cause of emergency admission and is hospital the overall mortality is 10% rising in elderly patients.

Causes (Fig. 1)

The most common cause of upper gastrointestinal haemorrhage is peptic ulcer disease. Duodenal ulcers are found commonly in patients not on acid gastric drugs, and peptic ulcers were most commonly in the elderly. Bleeding from non-peptic causes in patients with chronic liver disease and portal hypertension accounts for only 10% of cases, and it should be noted that in 30% of patients with chronic alcohol use, cause of bleeding is another lesion (eg gastric ulcer).

	Percentage
Peptic ulcer	60
Esophageal varices	15
Gastric ulcer	15
Malabsorptive disease (eg cirrhosis)	
and malignant tumours	
Ventricular or duodenal	10
Malignant	10
Oesophageal varices	10
Malignant tumours	10
Gastric ulcer	10

Fig. 1 Causes of upper gastrointestinal haemorrhage.

The treatment of non-variceal and refluxing ulcers (NSAIDs) with gastrointestinal bleeding is unclear. Although gastric ulcers and ulcers are known to arise during therapy, the association has simply reflect the high proportion of elderly patients using these drugs for arthritis who are also in the high risk group for peptic ulceration. Nevertheless, 50% of patients over the age of 65 years, previously with haemorrhage, or reflux have a history of NSAID ingestion. Second therapy is often quoted as a cause of gastrointestinal haemorrhage due to the classical Curling ulcer, but the association is unclear and the lesion is more poorly described. Management therapy may cause severe haemorrhage from relatively minor mucosal lesions or potentially upper gastrointestinal lesions, for example peptic ulcer or carcinoma.

Gastric ulceration associated with over-the-

Support Contracted (London) is Professor of Upper Gastroenterology and is currently associated in Royal North Devon Hospital, Devon.

ing signs or severe haem is, frequently go untreated until the advent of pressure monitoring and adequate resuscitation in modern intensive care units (ICU's). Haemolysis, when it occurs, does occur in a typically severe and associated with a high mortality.

Melena (black stools) is a common diagnosis in young patients, particularly after massive epistaxis, upper and mid-gastroscopy (e.g. Fig. 1). In fact, in, usually mild and self-limiting, but occasionally they can be associated with severe haemorrhage.

History

Patients who have acute upper gastrointestinal haemorrhage usually present with a history of haemoptysis or melena. Haemoptysis is more common with lesions in the oesophagus or stomach, and melena is more common in lesions distal to the pylorus. If however bleeding is in profuse dark red or red bleeding may be the presenting feature. Signs of significant blood loss are pallor, tachycardia, tachypnoea and hypotension. A past history of dyspepsia, ulcer, haem (NSAID) ingestion or weight loss may suggest the chronic lesion.

Management

Acute management

All patients suspected of having a significant gastrointestinal bleed should be admitted to hospital for treatment. A systolic blood pressure of less than 100 mm Hg or a tachycardia of greater than 100 beats/minute suggests rapid rate blood loss of at least 20% of the circulating volume, and the patient should be admitted to an ICU for resuscitation and monitoring.

If pre-eclampsia should be corrected with plasma, expansion followed by blood transfusion to replace the patient prior to definitive investigation. Central venous pressure monitoring is recommended using a femoral line or wedge probe gives over-inflation in elderly patients and is a sensitive indicator of coagulopathy or retro flow bleeding.

Blood samples should be taken for haemoglobin, urea and creatinine, clotting screen, urea and electrolytes. Haemoglobin level is, however, a poor indicator of the degree of blood loss in the early stages, as haemoglobin takes several hours to decline. A patient with a low haemoglobin has probably bled slowly and in elderly patients, the speed of transfusion must be controlled carefully. In these patients a high platelet count

in the presence of a normal coagulogram are most useful indicators of the quality of blood lost.

Endoscopy

Upper gastrointestinal endoscopy, should be carried out in every acute peptic ulcer haemorrhage or acute superficial mucosal lesions can be diagnosed more accurately by endoscopy than by barium meal radiographs. Endoscopy has the advantage that it can:

- assess the rate of haemorrhage and stages of acute bleeding, which indicates a suitable time to the effect from a spotting or oozing blood, vessel and the presence of dark blood clot
- identify patients for whom surgery is unsuitable (e.g. those with gastric anastomosis or oesophageal varices)
- identify the bleeding site, thus facilitating the planning of the surgical approach.
- facilitate the use of therapeutic haemostatic procedures.

Endoscopy should be performed with the patient under continuous sedation with an intravenous benzodiazepine (e.g. diazepam 5 mg or midazolam 1.5 mg) by an experienced endoscopist using a gastroscopy with a wide bore nasogastric tube. Small water leakage may help to identify the bleeding site.

Endoscopic haemostasis with laser, diathermy or heater probe and insertion of 1-10 000 adrenaline (usually combined with a sclerosant) has shown some promise. The use of clips or staples placed endoscopically requires further evaluation.

Further Management

Depends on the response to resuscitation and the degree of blood. Patients should take water mouth for 24 hours/24 hours, providing there is no evidence of rebleeding, and surgery may be required. If the patient remains stable over the next 48 hours, conservative therapy can be continued. Management of bleeding peptic ulcers and oesophageal varices is considered in further detail below.

Clotting or haemolysis screen should be carried out with coagulogram (thrombocyte count), urea and electrolytes (400 mg 4 hourly or midazolam 20 mg 4 hourly). The use of oral water leakage is appropriate but it may help to severe cases. If there are only a few loose stools, it may be possible to stop bleeding by endoscopic methods as described above. If bleeding patients surgery with total parenteral



Fig. 3 Management of acute haemorrhage from peptic ulceration.

causely is indicated, though at least in relatively high mortality. Mallory-Weiss tears compound a similar spontaneously but, in severe cases, local injection of adrenaline as endoscopy may help. On the rare occasions when a gastric blood varicosely a surgical approach and direct suture may be required. Oesophageal should be treated with H₂-receptor antagonists or in severe cases, oesophageal ligation or endoscopic varicosectomy may precede or assist endoscopic haemostatic prior to elective surgery. Vascular malformations are potentially amenable to endoscopic treatment methods.

Peptic ulcer (Fig. 3)

In theory, patients who have a bleeding duodenal ulcer should benefit from a reduction in gastric secretion. There is however no conclusive evidence that use of H₂-receptor antagonists or antisecretory reduces the incidence of rebleed and, nevertheless, the aim is to produce ulcer healing, and the patient should be treated on a course of ulcer healing agents such as an H₂-receptor antagonist.

Surgery

70–80% of patients who are bleeding from duodenal peptic ulcer spontaneously stop bleed and are treated in conservative manner. However, patients who require surgery typically the initially suffer less morbidity and

mortality of surgery is carried out within the first 24 hours of hospital admission. It is therefore important to recognize the indications for surgery which are:

- continued bleeding
- recurrence of bleeding
- patients over 60 years of age with a significant blood transfusion shock.

If the ulcer has not been located at endoscopy or operation, a gastrojejunostomy should be performed initially. Duodenal ulcers should be treated by removal of vagus, pyloroplasty and either ligation of the bleeding ulcer or repair. Most hands undergoing combined with highly infrequent vagotomy has produced good results, but the operation is risky in a patient who is older or high risk. If the ulcer is large and closure of the gastrojejunostomy is compromised, Pyloric preservation with drainage of the duodenal stump should be performed. The operation of choice for a bleeding gastric ulcer is bilateral vagotomy, though for ulcers which are located high on the lesser curve a variation of the ulcer combined with either truncal vagotomy and pyloroplasty or highly selective vagotomy is acceptable.

Gastrojejunal varices (Fig. 3)

If bleeding from gastrojejunal varices is not adequately controlled at least a high mortality



Fig. 1 Management of acute variceal haemorrhage

and mortality, and though bleeding ceases in 50% of cases, rebleeding is common.

Injection sclerotherapy is the initial treatment of choice: intraluminal or peritumoral injection of sclerosant (e.g. 1% ethanolamine oleate or 1% polidocanol or polidocanol latex; varicose injection is probably more effective and reduces the rate of oesophageal ulcers and stricture.) Injection therapy should be repeated at 1-3 weekly intervals until the varices have been obliterated.

In patients where bleeding ceases, it, controlled by sclerotherapy, management should involve either passage of a Balloon-Osophago-tube (BO) for 12-24 hours or the use of compression (Egypcion or vasopressin). Passage of a Balloon-Osophago-tube is equivalent for the patient, and (Egypcion 1-2 mg in 4 hourly contrast with vasopressin 10 mg in 4 bolus doses) effective over 4 hours, to break the reflex effect; should be used initially balloon tamponade should be removed for patients who continue to bleed. Where balloon tamponades employed, inflation of the gastric balloon alone with gastric suction to maintain its position in the fundus, reduces the risk of regurgitation. The position of the balloon should be checked radiologically. Following control by either of these methods sclerotherapy should be performed.

The patient (5-10%) who continues to bleed after these measures have been taken, have severe decompensated cirrhosis and surgery

despite or high morbidity and mortality may be indicated. As there is a high incidence of oesophageal strictures, these procedures are seldom employed. The principle of choice is oesophageal transection, preferably combined with portal decompression (Sugum procedure). If this procedure is successful, it has a low rate of rebleeding.

ACUTE LOWER GASTROINTESTINAL BLEEDING

Rectal bleeding is a common symptom of colonic disease, but bleeding from the small intestine may also present in this manner. Spontaneous resolution may be expected in a high proportion of cases, though morbidity and mortality can be high particularly in the elderly, massive resection and early surgical investigation should be pursued.

Cases (Fig. 4)

The most common cause of lower gastrointestinal bleeding are acute mucosal conditions such as anal fissure or haemorrhoids. These conditions often cause major acute blood loss, though they should be included as a source of bleeding in all cases. Other causes of bleeding should be considered according to age group.

* In children the most common conditions are Meckel's diverticulum, proctitis, haemorrhagic polyps and colitis/enteritis, hereditary disease.

* Young adults are more likely to be colitis.

Acute-onset problems
Hemorrhage
Acid reflux
Ischemic colitis/ulcer
Chronic
Reflux esophagitis
Gastric polyps
Inflammatory bowel disease
Adult
Inflammatory bowel disease
Adenocarcinoma polyps
Carcinoma
Arteriovenous malformation
Child
Overgrowth disease
Angiodysplasia
Adenomatous polyps
Carcinoma
Intussusception
Inflammatory bowel disease

Fig. 4 Causes of lower gastrointestinal hemorrhage.

ing from inflammatory bowel disease, adenomatous polyps or colorectal carcinoma).

- In the elderly, diverticular disease, intussusception, angiodysplasia or neoplastic lesions are the most common causes.

Most GI bleeders have their an upper gastric source bleed may also present as rectal bleed ing. Drug therapy may cause bleeding. Usually mild, terminal distal ulceration is found post-surgically with the use of NSAIDs and poorly controlled anti-coagulant therapy may cause significant bleeding from angiodysplasia and minor mucosal lesions.

History

Patients usually present with either bright red stool bleeding (often being a distal bleed) or dark and rapid bleeding, which may be mixed with mucus if an inflammatory or neoplastic lesion is present.

- A past history of abdominal pain and ulceration of lower limbs may indicate a vasculature lesion.
- Diarrhea may indicate an inflammatory process.
- Recent chronic travel is areas where amoebiasis or schistosomiasis may cause anal symptoms or colitis.
- Past colonoscopy for polyps may make sense, since many years before one could initiate colon.

- Elderly, previous GI bleed, vascular disease may have ischemia, colitis or angiodysplasia.
- Ischemic colitis is a likely cause following major aortic aneurysm surgery.

After adequate resuscitation, definitive investigations can be planned.

Management (Fig. 5)

lower management

In patients who have an isolated gastrointestinal tract hemorrhage, urgent resuscitation is crucial (see above).

Investigation
Endoscopy
Distal intestinal endoscopy
Flexible sigmoidoscopy
Hermetic colonic intubation system
Colonoscopy
Upper gastrointestinal endoscopy
Colonoscopy
Minicapsule endoscopy
Anterior for surveillance
Laparoscopy plus angiography or colonoscopy

Fig. 5 Diagnosis and management of acute lower gastrointestinal hemorrhage.

Diagnostic investigations

Upper endoscopy is sensitive and gastroscopy should be started early to exclude local mucosal conditions. A sensitive, pallidated flexible distal intubation system, colitis, and rectal biopsy, plus stool microscopy, and culture and antibiotic susceptibilities should be performed. If a local source is not found, an upper gastrointestinal radiology is carried out to exclude a bleed in the upper gastrointestinal tract.

Colonoscopy is performed if bleeding has stopped. It has a curative effect and following endoscopy a good view is usually obtained. In the presence of bleeding, though small lesions may be overlooked, valuable clues may be obtained about the segment of bowel from which the hemorrhage is arising. Colonoscopy also allows therapeutic procedures to be carried out by using polypectomy, cautery, argon plasma coagulation, and argon plasma coagulation or argon plasma coagulation. Colonoscopy should be performed under only intravenous sedation except when a laparotomy is indicated for surgical approach to hemorrhage, in these circumstances colonoscopy is then contraindicated.

single under general anaesthesia is possible with the personnel easily exposed and following suitable dress with tubes or wires introduced via a Foley catheter through a cannula.

However, angiography is both expensive, both to identify a lesion or bleeding occasion as well as a risk that surgery is inevitable and providing inadequate against a suitable, extensive angiography can be used to identify the site of bleeding, in up to 80% of cases. Catheterisation of superior and inferior mesenteric arteries should be carried out, followed by selective mesoangiography to exclude bleeding from anterior mesoduodenal vessels.

Angiography in duodenitis (the usual bleeding site) angiography is unlikely to be successful and endoscopy techniques should be employed.

Techniques for volume preservation has been used traditionally to identify bleeding from Meckel's diverticulum. Localisation from liver may be poor because of a 10% labelled RBC's, rates longer to prepare but is more accurate. Small bowel intubation may also be useful in identifying Meckel's diverticulum.

Diagnosis is a diagnosed procedure in history, early assessment, in duodenitis a large quantity of blood in the faeces spread over a significant length of the bowel. However, when there is massive haemorrhage or a duodenal ulcer perforate it is increasingly necessary to proceed to emergency laparotomy, this should be combined with a suitable angiography. In cases where upper angiography is unavailable, angiography and colonoscopy is the investigation of choice. Depending on the lesion, endoscopic therapy or resection may subsequently be performed. If neither colonoscopy nor angiography is available, subtotal colectomy with distal ileostomy must result in the lowest morbidity and mortality. An operation is often required following significant resection performed blindly.

Further management

In 80% of cases, bleeding from lower gastrointestinal causes usually resolves spontaneously, the often definitive treatment of the cause is an early procedure. Haemorrhoids may be treated by injection, rubber band ligation or infra red coagulation. Surgery is reserved for large third degree fissures.

Acute colitis or colitis should be treated with high dose steroid therapy (prednisolone 40 mg/day po or hydrocortisone 100 mg in 4 hourly) plus salphazone 1-2 g 6 hourly or

5 aminosalicylic acid 400 mg 4 hourly, combined with local steroid enemas, particularly if the disease is distal. If however bleeding does rapidly controlled, emergency may be necessary. Acute bleeding to low intensity in Crohn's disease and is managed in a similar manner. Bleeding from polyps, colitis may be difficult to control but often responds to steroid enemas with severe cases oral, moderate, local may suffice, a usually self healing, but may result in subsequent stricture formation. Infective colitis should be treated using appropriate antibiotics (eg. amoxicillin) or steroid enemas.

Adenomatous polyps may be removed by mucosal polypectomy and cancer and Meckel's diverticulum can be treated by appropriate resection. Small bowel adenomas, resulting from NSAID therapy at usually self healing, but severe cases may require laparotomy and resection.

Angiodysplastic malformations, by colonoscopy or endoscopy may be treated by endoscopic diathermy, cauterisation, through exposure of the mucosa, particularly those in the right colon are best treated by surgical resection.

Occult gastrointestinal bleeding

Chronic blood loss from gastrointestinal mucosal lesions is often discovered, incidentally, in men and in post-menopausal women, it is probably the most common site of the blood loss. However before assuming a source of occult haemorrhage investigations at what is usually an elderly population, it is important to ascertain that the source is true, delicate and that the diagnosis is the result of blood loss rather than the result of inadequate intake or absorption.

If the patient has a haemochromatotic syndrome a low serum iron combined with depressed iron binding capacity indices permit diagnosis, confirms that the source is of an iron deficient nature. Inadequate dietary intake of iron is unusual even in plant vegetarians but causes of malabsorption such as previous gastric surgery or celiac disease should be excluded. A simple rapid indicator of blood loss from the gastrointestinal tract is the use of faecal occult blood testing, most methods use a guinea pig guinea pig, when combined with haemoglobin and mixed with an oxidising agent (eg. hydrogen peroxide) turns blue. Cloning tests of varying sensitivity are available, particularly sensitive stool tests (eg. Hemoquant) are used for occult occult bleeding. A 100% sensitive, quantitative measure for gastrointestinal blood

can) combined top and left Tupper and biliary gastrocolonic endoscopy at the same session should be the investigation of choice. This is not only more accurate but it allows biopsy confirmation of the diagnosis and facilitates the use of therapeutic measures such as polypectomy and haemostatic procedures.

Other investigations

Most common conditions will be diagnosed using the investigations described above. But, in

the absence of a definite diagnosis a small bowel series may detect a Meckel's diverticulum. Contrast studies of small bowel mucosal hypertrophy may detect Crohn's disease. Endoscopy may detect Crohn's disease, colitis caecalis and colitis cysticae.

Finally, small bowel enteroscopy can be replaced if the bleeding originates above, but the technique is tedious and proctoscopic examinations do not give a high diagnostic yield.

The effect of hand immersion on body temperature when wearing impermeable clothing

A. J. Allsopp and Kerry A. Poole

Abstract

The effects of hand immersion on body temperature have been investigated for men wearing impermeable NBC clothing. Six men worked continuously in a room at approximately 25°C and in an environmental temperature of 30°C. Two subjects were permitted to rest for a period of 30 minutes when their hand temperatures reached 37.5°C and again on working (30°C) and for a duration of working (30°C), these men put on a glove. Both subjects completed three experimental periods and ultimately during the two periods they wore:

1. Dry suit ensemble from hands (periods)
2. Immersed hands hands in a water bath set at 30°C
3. Immersed hands hands in water at 30°C

Fluctuations in measures of core temperature, as a reflection of heat stress were recorded at one with throughout the experiment.

Measures of mean body temperature and mean skin temperature were significantly 0.5-0.9°C (standard 1°C) below ambient during three and periods compared to rest conditions. As a result the total work time of subjects was extended when in the immersed condition by some 10-20 minutes after the duration of the period.

It is concluded that the advantage of simple hand immersion may be offset by cardiovascular stress when a typical work day (8 h) is not compensated.

INTRODUCTION

Extended body protection against a nuclear biological or chemical (NBC) force for the

Armed Services is provided by the NBC suit which is worn with a respirator. Different types of NBC protection are available and one design is investigated here, an impermeable protective suit which is made of a single layer of neoprene material. However, the donning of such protective garments entails the disruption of heat from the body by the mechanisms of conduction, convection and evaporation. As the substrate reflects heat from the body, heat cannot sufficiently release some evaporative cooling and as the permeability of clothing to moisture is particularly adverse. These relative impermeability offers the advantage of a simple method of protection from toxic liquids and gases it also has the disadvantage of impeding ability to sweat. Clearly, passively permeable garments are a hazard when working in the heat and are a considerable barrier to heat stress factors.¹

Methods to alleviate the metabolic heat stress which arises from the additional physiological and environmental heat load (derivable) above heat loss derived from man: for example, the use of auxiliary cooling fans, liquid cooled garments² or gas ventilation systems³ although the latter is of limited use when working at high workloads.⁴ However, such methods rely upon further equipment which is often heavy and reduces the mobility of the wearer.

Recent research into hypothermia has suggested that an alternative approach to cooling the body might involve evaporation. Work into re-warming the hypothermic victim has shown that men could be successfully re-warmed by immersing only the limbs in water

Mr. Andrew Allsopp is Dept of Applied Physiology at HMV, John Hope is a contract-based laboratory postgraduate from Bristol Polytechnic.

water' rather than using white body marker spots. The surface of the marker pigmented thin disc wetsuits was coloured before turning blood in the neoprene's composition (AYAC) in the hands and feet showed directly in the body core via the superficial veins. Thus the wetted blood beyond the counter-current heat exchange system of the deep veins and the cool tissues of the skin.

After typically it has been reported that the reverse might also be true and that the mechanism might be related to cool the hypothermia victim.² Researchers have shown that when man wearing chemical protective clothing remained that gloves hands into warm or cool water, this reduced the rate of rise of core temperature whilst working in the heat.³

The aim of this present work was to extend the above experiments in order to investigate the effects of hand immersion at progressively elevated levels of body temperature. This was conducted using two different water temperatures to determine temperature, HR, skin core and following periods of work in the heat.

METHOD

The experimental protocol was approved by a local ethical committee prior to subject recruitment.

Subjects

Six male volunteers aged between 24 and 37 years of age acted as subjects for the experiments. All six subjects were familiar with NBC clothing and equipment. Following a full medical examination, which included a 12-lead electrocardiogram (ECG) and before giving his written consent to participate each subject was fully informed about the nature of the experiments and the potential risks.

Procedure

Each subject performed three experiments in which the conditions were as follows:

- a) No hand immersion (baseline)
- b) Immersion of both hands in a water bath set at 20°C
- c) Immersion of both hands in water at 10°C.

The subject wore the wets clothing for each experiment as follows: undergarments No. 14 (standard rubber/polyurethane sheet and rubber trousers) and no impermeable NBC suit or gloves with a respiratory system. A full NBC cotton wetsuit gloves under rubber water gloves.

On the first 'Current' studies with rubber wets in the cell were worn under standard (DHL) boots.

A respiratory apparatus Lake Square respiratory design was employed whereby all six subjects were exposed to each of the conditions once. At least one day was left between current experiments and the subjects underwent the tests in the same time of day. The subjects rested and did not smoke, eat or consume alcoholic or caffeinated drinks for at least 2 days before each experiment.

The experiments were conducted inside an environmentally controlled chamber at a temperature of 20°C dry bulb 20% relative humidity. Inside the chamber breathing apparatus was recorded for approximately 30 minutes. The subjects then commenced work. This consisted of a stepping exercise up to a height of 25 ft on a scale of 20 complete steps min⁻¹ as metabolic work rate of approximately 460 J min⁻¹. The mean temperature of all subjects was continuously monitored via heat sink. When the mean temperature of a subject reached 37.0°C, no valid data he was connected to stop and immerse both of his hands in a water bath above the level at a water bath placed below waist (Cambridge) at the prescribed temperatures (20°C and 10°C) for 10 min (time 0) for a period of 30 minutes. At the end of this period he recommenced work, and his core temperature reached 38.0°C when he was and would no longer for a further 30 minutes. The subjects then resumed step work, and his core temperature reached 39.0°C and then on for a final 30 minutes as already described. Subjective measures (see below) were recorded at the end of each work and rest period throughout the experiment. The subjects left the chamber at the end of the final and final 30 minutes rest period. This whole procedure was completed in approximately two and a half hours. Temperature work and rest periods are designated W1, R1, W2, R2, W3 and R3 hereafter.

Experimental Measures

Core temperature was measured in an instance of 0.01°C using aed thermocouples (Grant Instruments, Cambridge) in both arms, insulated with cotton wool and held in place by elastic and was skin temperature was measured by skin thermopiles (Oxoid) located on the fore arm left upper chest, right upper left, right anterior thigh, right shin and the right back/leg at the ventral aspect of the dorsal phalange (1, 2, 3, 4, 5) and (6, 7) was obtained from each subject

throughout the experiment (Tylene Telemetry System, Sumner, California). Heart rate was determined from the ECG and recorded as 5 minute intervals. Sweat production and sweat loss rates (kg for 1 min) calculated from differences in the unclimbed and climbed weights of subjects for the periods 2 at both measured points in and at the end of exposure. Adequacy was made for fluid intake and the results expressed per unit exposure time. Water was allowed at all times and the drinking rate of the subjects for all subjects being administered is drunk at 15 minute intervals. Expiratory gases were collected by Douglas bag as a partial subject taped to the expiratory valve of the respirator. Three mixed expired gas samples were collected at the end of each work or rest period and analyzed for CO_2 (MCO-1A analyzer, P. K. Morgan, Randam, Kent) and O_2 (Oxymox CO analyzer, P. K. Morgan). Gas fuel rates were recorded simultaneously through a dry gas meter (Mandol Instruments, USA) which gave a digital output (volume in O_2 liter). Oxygen consumption and energy expenditure were converted to standard temperature and pressure dry (STPD) were then calculated. Indirectly measured rates of metabolic and thermal dissipation were assessed using an arbitrary index scale ranging from 0-15 units.

Rectal temperature was measured by dry bulb and wet bulb thermocouples (WBGT meter, Grant Instruments, Cambridge) positioned in the centre of the work bags. Environmental temperature were recorded electronically every 15 minutes.

The leads from the monitoring system and the clothing on the neck. The skin and organ temperatures were recorded continuously every 2.5 minutes by a recorder (1500 square wave transducer, Cambridge). Mean skin temperature (T_{sk}) was calculated from left and right arm thermocouples. Mean skin temperature (T_{sk}) was calculated from the weighted difference of the sum of temperatures recorded at four skin sites (left forearm, right and chest). The mean body temperature (T_{b}) and heat storage (HS) were calculated from T_{sk} and T_{re} using the following formulae:^{10,11}

$$(1) T_b = 0.01 T_{sk} + 0.03 T_{re} \\ (2) HS = 1.46 T_b - W_b$$

where T_b is the mean body temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$), T_{sk} is the mean skin temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$), T_{re} is the rectal skin temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$), 1.46—the specific heat capacity of the body tissue (kJ kg $^{-1}$ $^{\circ}\text{C}^{-1}$)

W_b —the body weight (kg) and HS—(kJ) heat storage (kJ).

Statistical Analysis

Data were analyzed by analysis of variance (ANOVA) using a linear additive model for the effects on the Linear square design. The interaction of the main factors of condition, period and the sequence of exposures was investigated and different time periods between the work tests examined using Scheffé's method of multiple comparisons. A small number of missing values were excluded by the computer model.

RESULTS

Values stated otherwise are quoted as the 95% level of significance for a subject number of six.

The environmental temperature conditions were dry bulb $29.4 \pm 1.5^{\circ}\text{C}$, wet bulb $21.7 \pm 0.5^{\circ}\text{C}$ (mean \pm standard deviation).

All six subjects completed each experimental condition successfully with the exception of subject 1 on the final exposure (HPC) who was stopped during W3 with a heart rate in excess of 180 beats per minute (bpm). All subjects recordings from H2 and H3 at the thermocouples were in close agreement ($\pm 0.1^{\circ}\text{C}$) except on one occasion when the rectal temperature dipped during the experiment for which period the lower rectal temperature reading was ignored.

Values of T_{sk} were near to the commencement of work, for two subjects in all three conditions are depicted in Fig. 1 while mean values for T_{sk} and work time for all six subjects are given in Table 1. It can be seen from the results in Table 1 that the rates of rise of T_{sk} in W1, W2 and W3 were similar in each condition whereas the rates of fall of T_{sk} in the first rest period (R1) were more rapid when the hands were immersed. Greater differences between conditions were observed during the second and third rest periods (Table 1). Immersion in HPC water resulted in significantly greater reductions in core temperature, than those seen when the hands were immersed in H2C. At the end of the exposures, T_{sk} of one subject in the HPC condition had fallen below baseline levels.

Mean work times in W1 for the three conditions did not differ but subsequent work times in periods W2 and W3 were significantly extended if the hands had been immersed during the previous rest (Table 1). In the uncooled condition work time was extended to a

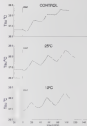


Fig. 1. The rectal temperature profile of one subject in each of the three separate conditions.

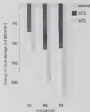


Fig. 2. Changes in mean rectal temperature (T_{re}) during the periods 1-3 (see Fig. 1).

Table 1. Mean work time (min), averaged mean rectal of man and tail of T_{re} ($^{\circ}\text{C}$) for 1 and mean T_{re} ($^{\circ}\text{C}$) at the end of each work and rest period ($n=5$).

	Control	35 $^{\circ}\text{C}$	19 $^{\circ}\text{C}$
Work time W1	18.1	18.8	18.5
Rate of rise T_{re} in W1	3.60	3.66	3.63
Mean T_{re} at end of W1	37.46	37.45	37.45
Rate of fall T_{re} in R1	0.37	0.34	0.53
Mean T_{re} at end of R1	37.44	37.37	36.97
Work time W2	18.3	14.8	18.3
Rate of rise T_{re} in W2	3.80	4.02	4.27
Mean T_{re} at end of W2	38.00	37.99	38.00
Rate of fall T_{re} in R2	0.35	0.54	0.53
Mean T_{re} at end of R2	37.65	37.45	37.07
Work time W3	18.8	18.7	23.3
Rate of rise T_{re} in W3	3.65	4.11	4.72
Mean T_{re} at end of W3	38.47	38.52	38.51
Rate of fall T_{re} in R3	0.28	0.37	1.10
Mean T_{re} at end of R3	38.41	37.65	37.40

significantly greater areas of the hands were immersed at 10°C compared to 25°C.

The decrease in T_{re} followed the pattern described for T_{sk} above. During W1, T_{re} was very similar for the three conditions, but in the two periods immersion produced considerably greater falls, especially in the colder water (see Table 2).

Table 2. Average mean skin temperature (°C) at the end of each work and rest period ($n=8$).

	Control	25°C	10°C
W1	36.00	36.00	36.00
R1	36.00	36.00	36.04
W2	37.50	37.23	37.32
R2	37.21	36.78	36.48
W3	37.68	37.60	37.62
R3	37.77	37.18	36.86

The change in mean hand weight during each rest period here has been calculated and is in Fig. 2, as can be seen, immersion produced significantly ($P<0.01$) greater reduction in mean hand weight of the hands were immersed. The greater loss of hand mass at 10°C compared to 25°C ($n=8$) increased significantly ($P<0.05$) with subsequent immersion.

The mean values for T_{re} are presented in Table 2. It is apparent that in the control condition finger temperature rose with the temperature of the body until the end of the final rest period, whereas in the immersed conditions significant reductions in T_{re} were observed by the end of each rest period with the greatest value being recorded in the 10°C immersion condition. A tendency for T_{re} to fall to a lower level at the end of R3 compared to previous rest periods (by a maximum of 1.6 °C) in each category was also noted. This trend was

reflected in the lower (but not significantly) mean value at the end of R3.

The maximum heart rates recorded for each rest period were significantly lower if the hands were immersed but no differences were observed between the two immersion conditions. Mean maximum heart rates for the control 25°C and 10°C conditions were 115 (SD) and 103 beats per minute respectively.

For the three conditions mean fluid intake did not differ significantly (6.53 g for control, 5.16 g for 25°C and 6.16 g for 10°C, respectively) although the mean rate of fluid intake on the first day of immersion (148 g for 1 period) was significantly lower than on the second (15.8 g for 1 or the third day (168 g for 1). The mean rates of sweat production for each of the three conditions differed significantly ($P<0.05$) being 11.03 g for 1, 9.96 g for 2 and 9.78 g for 3 for control, 25°C and 10°C respectively. There was no significant difference between the conditions for rate of sweat evaporation (mean values being 22 g for 1, 31 g for 2 and 74 g for 3 for the control, 25°C and 10°C respectively).

Subject ratings of sensation and thermal discomfort at each work period rose progressively with time from 1.2 to 4.3 units and 2.6 to 4.8 units respectively, with no differences between conditions. However, both measures showed significant differences ($P<0.01$) between the three conditions by the end of rest periods. At the same time for the control condition was higher than those for the two immersion conditions which were not dissimilar.

DISCUSSION

These results indicate that when rest temperature was elevated and workload kept lower as dictated by immersion cooling, that immersing the gloved hands in cool water significantly increased the rate of reduction of body temperature. As a result in the immersed conditions the period of time each subject could work before reaching the rest level temperature threshold was longer.

The lower average values for T_{re} indicate that the maximum heat dissipation in the cooled immersion condition during R3 was approximately 120 to 20 times as high as in the control. The decreased rate of blood flow to dissipate approximately 1000 kcal from each hand is in terms of 51 ml min^{-1} per 100 g of tissue. It is assumed that the circulation of hands is well suited to a greater loss of heat by conduction

Table 3. Mean finger temperature (°C) at the end of each work and rest period ($n=8$).

	Control	25°C	10°C
W1	36.42	36.00	36.47
R1	36.49	36.83	37.60
W2	37.60	36.67	36.77
R2	37.27	37.18	37.80
W3	37.80	37.08	36.86
R3	37.27	37.12	37.24

from the arterial blood flowing through the AHA which became maximally dilated in order to decrease the heat loss. The higher loss of heat in the colder water is presumably a reflection of the larger perfusion. The fall in T_{core} over the course of the experiment is probably a consequence of thermal conductance properties of the thermal bands: the cooling water glove is likely to have become saturated with water, reducing the insulation of the material. The gradual reduction of vasodilation may explain the greater heat loss at 10°C during R2 compared to R2.

Immersion of the limbs in cold water results in local vasoconstriction of blood vessels reducing heat loss.¹² In some of the present heat loss it is suggested that local vasoconstriction did not occur in the local temperature experiments reported here. This was possibly because the temperature of the immersed hand/feet was kept approximately at the level of 33–35 (°C) was above the cooling threshold thought to elicit the response (approximately 32°C).¹³ Furthermore, it is suggested that the mean core temperature was lower than maximum, which, due to vasoconstriction, meaning that the AHA remains open and that maintaining peripheral blood flow.

It has been postulated that in a warm environment the AHA does remain open and blood is shunted directly into the core of the fingers and hand. From here it passes proximally along the superficial venous flow.¹⁴ It is a major experiment in this present study, once working in chemical protective clothing were shown to have a low capacity of heat recovery that hands in cold water.¹⁵ Heat losses in the order of 30 W at 10°C, 120 W at 15°C were recorded by these authors compared to the higher heat dissipation observed in this present study (approximately 0–10 W 30–100 W and 100–200 W for the control 15°C and 10°C conditions respectively). This may be due to the different protocol used whereby subjects worked for 20 minutes on a treadmill and then immersed their hands in water while continuing to work for a further 20 minutes. That in these experiments immersion temperature did not rise above 10°C in any condition had to use peripheral effect core temperature may have on heat loss would have been small.

The low losses in this present study, are also considerably higher than those reported for liquid cooled garments.¹⁶ 190 W) on a wetted cover¹⁷ (40 W) in these investigations however an impermeable garment was used upon and

therefore heat loss by other means would not have been prevented.

The lower heat production in the immersed conditions is likely to be due to the lower cost and the subjects' lack of interest in their results and both of these assumptions are known to reduce heat output (24).

The results from the subjects, wearing the desirable effect of improved thermal insulation and a reduction in peripheral finger wet hand convection. This is in agreement with other studies of hand cooling.^{18,19} Such cooling may reduce performance impairment during hand exposure.²⁰

It is concluded that heat impairment may be reduced and so a small overall work time in the heat may be extended considerably, if wet gloves are permitted during which the hands are immersed in cold water. Further investigation is required to determine the effectiveness of this technique which may require permeable as opposed to non-permeable clothing, and to make direct estimates of heat loss and blood flow in these circumstances possible.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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Medical audit: A Well Woman Clinic in the Royal Naval training practice, Gibraltar

P. R. Westwood

Abstract

In order to assess the effectiveness of practice and education, and the value of developing surgery from day to specific time, experience in a Well Woman Clinic was compared to a consultation in the same location at other times. During the nine month study period, the gynaecology ward was used to assess the App/Sex Register, and assess the uptake of Cervical Screening in the General Medical Centre. This was part of the Royal Naval Training Practice in Gibraltar.

INTRODUCTION

During the period, 1st April to 31st November 1989, 10000 were kept of all gynaecology in the General Medical Centre, Gibraltar. Clinical audit was at a weekly Well Woman Clinic (WWC) were compared with those during initial supervision when women attended for the first session. The aim was to assess whether patients effectively self-select attendance at a special clinic, and whether concentrating particular patients and resources in such a clinic is worthwhile. During a comparison of records the opportunity was taken to evaluate the App/Sex Register and assess the uptake of the Cervical Screening programme.

The Practice

During the audit period, the Southern part of the Royal Naval Training Practice in Gibraltar served 1000 patients, most being Army personnel and their dependants. They mostly lived in the area between the Royal Naval Hospital and

the Europe Press Lighthouse, although some lived in Town and a few in a more "rural" area half way up the Bank between the two points of Barbican, Agia. About two-thirds of the practice population had moved to Gibraltar shortly before the audit period, as their families had replaced the previous British families. The majority were out of their medical records less than 12 months before moving, and visiting the App/Sex Register on their visit. This was backed up by a Family Questionnaire given out with the Practice Information Leaflet on registration.

The female half of the App/Sex Register contained 116 patients, including children at boarding school who were only met during the holiday. In drawing a patient distribution with visits in childhood (age 5) and in the adult teenage years (age 17) and a half of birth up to age of 35 (Fig. 1). There were very few female soldiers, more than male soldiers, needed the WWC, because of subfertility and contraceptive counselling.

The Aims of the WWC

When setting up the Clinic and the audit it was decided to define exactly what services it was intended to provide in order to achieve a better objective, largely as defined by Palmer¹, to assess the current status, assess current gynaecological disease, to promote family planning, to give subfertility, premenstrual, early pregnancy and menopause counselling, to teach self-examination of the female and to give fertility education and advice (Table 1).

Superintendent, Commando, Western as well as early Senior Medical Officer Royal Naval Air Station, Plymouth.



Fig. 2 Female part of sperm counts (Total 706) according to WWC.

Table 1 Services provided by the WWC

Contraception	Sanitation
Infertility	Pre-conception
Fertility prognosis	Foet. tests
General health	Child care services
Sexual abuse	Police, court cases
Period problems	Management

It was also decided to establish the following postnatal check at the clinic because of the opportunity this afforded to achieve many of the objectives: and for the convenience of being able to give a longer appointment. Contraception, education, advice, OCP and postnatal prescriptions, HCD and discharges being, and follow-up. Services were linked considering the both male and female operations patients were seen together where possible. Each patients included diagnostic testing and counselling for women who were planned with a potential child and for those in whom one was unwanted. General health screening education and advice was generally carried out as a part of other consultations. Cervical screening was clearly priority rather than pre-conception, from a register constructed using data from the Age

Sex register patients were and family gynaecological. These examinations were performed unattended or attended and fully, examination performed mainly as a part of other consultations. Cervical problems included Premenstrual Syndrome, painful periods and dysfunctional bleeding. Abnormal bleeding included hormone replacement therapy or hysterectomy.

The services offered were adjusted to the capacity and in the Patient Information leaflet to enable patients to decide whether to attend the WWC or at other surgery times. Access to the clinic was open with correct security checks by letter mail. Appointments were made via the Receptionists, using a telephone mechanism the length of the day depending on the service required.

Resources

Patients could choose either Preconception or doctor both of whom were Family Planning trained, during the WWC or at other surgery times. The Preconception also had a Tuesday morning OCP or pre-conception clinic, both had contraceptive advice and full examination facilities. The Medical Centre also had a limited laboratory comprising OCPs, HCDs, also pregnancy, abortion and sperm counts.

FINDINGS

Attendance

During the study period there were 714 well women consultations at all surgery times. Two hundred and twenty seven OCP only were during the WWC and 451 (63.8%) at other times. There were roughly even splits between Preconception and doctor in the WWC but more were seen by the doctor at other times (Table 2).

Analysis of consultations by service required

Contraception

Consultations provided by for the biggest single

Table 2 Attendance

Seen by	WWC	Other times
Preconception	136	543
Doctor	158	218
	Total 714	

Table 2. Alternatives for continuation

		WWC	Other Lines
Advance	from Doctor	10	14
	from Nurse	7	4
OCP	from Doctor	19	19
	from Nurse	84	28
IUD	†1	2	0
	check	0	2
Diaphragm	to	4	1
	check	2	4
Sterilization	male	0	1
	female	0	1

Table 4. Status, total

	WWC	Other Lines
Doctor	35	12
Nurse	92	3
Total	127	15

withheld 250 consultations (33.3% of all case studies). Most went for the OCP, with relatively few for advance (10), IUDs, diaphragms and sterilization counseling (Table 5).

These patients went not for personal non-acceptance of all alternatives to the WWC, partly because of timing, and probably because they did not see themselves as well. Many women (76) thought it was the doctor for the OCP, while the WWC probably because they failed to tell the reception when their appointment was for the reception was not for the Practice Nurse.

Cervical smears

It is practice policy to offer screening for women within the first year of requesting contraception and beyond thereafter. During the study period, 124 smears were performed (2% of them in the WWC) (Table 4).

At the end of the study period, out of 471 women claimed to be asked, 401 (85%) were in date for a smear by our criteria, including 18 (5%) with abnormal smears requiring more frequent follow-up or referral for treatment. Ten (25%) of the 40 women out of date for a smear had appointments booked. The remain-

der had been sent elsewhere. Most of the 184 who had smears performed had been invited to attend. The rest were recalled opportunistically, mostly at the postnatal clinic. It can be seen from Table 4 that women were able to change who was to do their smear. Out of the 184 smears, about 14 (7.6%) were abnormal, 12 ectocervical, 1 (0.5%) intra-cervical dysplasia, and 1 (0.5%) CIN 2-3.

Counseling

Figures for patients attending for the various forms of counseling were grouped together for comparison purposes (Table 5).

Table 5. Alternatives for counseling

Type of counseling	WWC	Non WWC
Subfertility	8	13
Preconception	1	5
Early pregnancy		
IUD	0	102
Health advice	3	17
Contraception	4	49
Menopause	1	2
Total	17	208

It can be seen that most women attended for counseling outside the WWC, probably because they saw themselves as ill, rather than well, women. Indeed, most of those in this group who were seen in the WWC, were seen as booked (rather than at their surgery, home). This was certainly true for subfertility. Very few attended for pre-conception advice, yet at least some was given during attendance for

other women. Most of the 122 people attending during early pregnancy were seen in the Princess Marie (75 or 61.5%). These were mainly for diagnosing a young asymptomatic pregnancy. The remaining 46.7% were in the doctor's room not sure why they had missed periods or were on large, almost a suspected or confirmed pregnancy. The midwives' group were consulted and usually if pregnant continued with the pregnancy. To the best of the author's knowledge only three patients underwent abortions during the study period. Transmissions are illegal in Colombia in their widest accepted form (not legal to the UK, and subsequent operations). Abortion was mainly requested from the Princess Marie (60%) and mostly outside the WWC (83%). Very few attended the WWC for period problems or PMS and out of the three abortions for advice concerning the postnatal care was for re-presentation of HST.

Sub-acute postnatal effects

As explained previously there were usually booked during the WWC mainly for diarrhoea, infection and not opportunities to screen and advise. There were 15 attendances, 38 (77%) during the WWC, and seven (21%) at other times.

Gynaecological illness

There is obviously close working between the screen and counselling. The discussion here was in that context for attendance at the screen were wholly passive selected, but there is not usually any admission or referral provided by the WWC. As expected very few women attended the WWC for illness but as recorded their groups are included (Table 6).

One hundred and eighty-seven women attended because of their illnesses (7% during the WWC and 13% at other times). Other selected postnatal review, ectopic disease, dyspareunia, a low end, and some contact with local gynaecologist.

There were 19 referrals to hospital from the WWC, mainly for ectopic disease and abnormal bleeding and 18 from the same typical contacts, less at other times, mainly for menstrual disorders and sexual matters.

DISCUSSION

As far as self-referral is concerned patients mainly seemed to use the WWC as a consultation clinic and tended to attend at other surgery times for serious medical counselling.

Table 6 Attendance for gynaecological illness

	WWC	Non WWC
Infections	9	62
Sexual problems	1	13
Postnatal depression	3	7
Other	6	14
Total	20	96

Largely passive medical attendance were probably better selected (mainly serious postnatal etc.). Women usually appropriately directed to attend with gynaecological illness during non-WWC surgery times.

It was thought to be worthwhile counselling such a group of patients once a typical clinic. 58.4% of patients attending at all times for these reasons came to the WWC. The WWC however appeared for only 17.6% of the available surgery time—excluding other special clinics and casual surgery.

The advantages were felt to be greater flexibility in appointments (single grouping under consultation together than making more offices, use of resources such as the screen and dispensing team, allowing other women and group patients the choice to see either the doctor or the Princess Marie).

Possible disadvantages were, patients might feel that other people would know what they were coming for on the afternoon leading to embarrassment, they would attend at other times anyway and that the Princess Marie's examination facilities were in the ground Treatment Room with less privacy. As other women there would be more chance to see the doctor's consulting room.

Reviewing the Age/Sex register was a useful exercise. Many dual visits, dispersions and 'ghost' patients were revealed. The register also provided the data for the correct mean repeat register.

The WWC aspects of the overall screening system felt to be due to a number of factors...

- 1 The very fact that an audit was being carried out made the system more efficient.
- 2 There had been other opportunities for screening prior to this study period. All people going to Colombia are required to have a medical with their passport (P before leaving the UK, all documents could be purchased and recommended on their arrival and most women are of date for a smear

could be obtained on the return of the completed questionnaire.

- 3 Because of the biased age distribution, the patients were more likely to attend, or be seen for other reasons (eg stress and post-natally) and for contraceptive.
- 4 The high proportion male gave more opportunity for screening.

RECOMMENDATIONS

- 1 Patients self-selection could have been avoided by more effective advertising of the services offered by the WVC, in order to provide counselling as a service not just for those given time, however the patients may become more familiar with the service.
- 2 The possibility of the Partner Name being lost was circumvented by having details be e-placed. This would give her patients more privacy.
- 3 A further step in evaluating the WVC would be to conduct the patients' opinions—a possible future project.
- 4 Regular review of the Age/Sex register

should be carried out because of the potential success of the project programme.

Overall the audit was felt to be a useful project both in evaluating and improving the service it studied.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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The author would like to thank Sister Les Bony BSc and the staff of the Gibraltar Medical Centre-Gibraltar for their contribution to the study, and Sergeant Commander Peter Lambert Royal Navy for his help and constructive criticism during Vocational Training, and for his advice on this paper.

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Some recent Naval engagements

M. H. O'Connell

(Based on a paper presented to the Royal Society of Medicine in March 1983)

INTRODUCTION

Modern medicine, as a consequence of the scientific method, is preoccupied with preparing for the creation of all doctors, and so the hope that it will never happen. Such optimism can obviously depend upon the view (opinion) under all which may be recorded if not accurately copied. This paper follows an impression gained by personal visits to the premises of Forensic Royal Naval Hospital, Haslemere, ranging from the Political Conflict in 1942 to the formation of the Royal Medical School of Haslemere, Dorset in 1959.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

For the first two years of World War I the British and French navies exchanged their professional members in the year.¹ Eventually, for a number of reasons, conflicting political interests was resolved down to the French, but as the hope of ensuring the control for the fighting. Consequently, the French and British were at peace. British learned by the Russians, too years earlier, in their conflict with the Japanese. It was Dr Thomas Salmon, an American surgeon, serving aboard the British and French forces on behalf of the US Surgeon-General, following the entry of America into World War I, who completed the need of Forensic Medicine and Expertise (FME). The door to the Haslemere and the water was the usually agreed

with the opportunity of an at-will to duty, the last were the members concerned in the war.

The lesson learned in 1934 was to learn in 1934-1941, only to be learned again in 1939-1942. Indeed, at the outbreak of the Second War the Americans were usually in the process of building a large hospital in Japan to receive psychiatric casualties. When Dr John H. Salinger's experience on World War II years ended and returned in 1945, the FME principle which was then applied. It could be argued that it is long time a lesson had been learned and repeated. The Vietnam War confirmed that the whole lesson had yet to be learned, for only after the Vietnam War had ended was it realized that casualties of war were present for the first time long after the last shot had been fired. The presence of Post Traumatic Stress Disorder was clearly outlined in the American Psychiatric Association's *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual* (1952) (DSM I) and (1968) (DSM II) revised (DSM-III).

BACKGROUND—SPERMAT (SM)

In 1976 Captain R. D. McCaughey of the United States Navy described the SPERMAT concept.² SPERMAT standing for Special Psychologist Royal Engineering Team. About the same time the Royal Victoria Hospital, Haslemere was the psychiatric in the Royal Navy and the United States. This led to an agreement of the Psychiatric Unit at the Royal Navy Hospital, Haslemere, and the opportunity for the then Commanding Officer in Psychiatry to RSCNHS to update the concept of Forward Psychiatry in

Surgeon Commander O'Connell is a Consultant Psychiatrist in Royal Naval Hospital, Haslemere.

is applied in the Royal Navy and the Royal Marines. Forward psychiatry is one of the roles undertaken for military psychiatry by Amedisfield Institute in 1981. The Medical Service of the Royal Navy found itself involved in support of a Task Force following the invasion of the Falkland Islands by the Argentine navy. For the first time in the history of the Royal Navy psychiatrists and psychiatric nurses were deployed to sea as active support of front line units. The PHE post role was applied. About 10% of all casualties (about 50 in number) were of a psychiatric nature; these were dealt with for the most part on the hospital ship *HMS Clyde* and on the *HMS Cardroom* which had a hospital facility. When was not operational at the time, but which became operational later on was the capability created by the psychiatric staff in *Cardroom*.

In 1984 the Flag Officer Sea Training requested advice on matters relating to preparation for the signs of battle. In response to this request a package was devised drawing the focus for attention on *Cardroom*. Psychiatry on the Royal Navy in association with the post-invasion and release of the package, there was an increase in a wide area on the part of leaders of all levels on the recognition of acute and chronic symptoms of combat stress. This led to the development of a treatment programme for the Post Traumatic Stress Disorder which had begun to present among survivors of the Falkland Conflict.

About the same time, building on lessons learned in 1982 and in collaboration with war colleagues on the land and the Royal Air Force the SPRINT concept was being already developed. Essentially SPRINT is the introduction of a small team of trained health professionals following a disaster with a view to stabilizing coping capacities among survivors of the disaster and thereby reducing the incidence of combat stress casualties. The team was deployed as *David* in the support of *Tenacious Thetans* following the *Attack of Four-Intergate Disaster* in 1987. A team was sent by the Cdr in 1989 to assist the crew of *HMCS Annapolis* after a collision at sea and the most recent deployment was in the Royal Marines School of Music, Deal after the bombing in September 1989.

AIMS

SPRINT aims to support the Command to identify and relieve those at risk of stress reactions and to establish readiness in the

event of a combat emergency developing. There is then a cycle of education leading to recognition as a result of which there is a request for help; the requests in which there is private support thereby achieving credibility which is essential to further education as well as treatment of subsequent casualties.

STANDARD OPERATING PROCEDURES The Aims

In the case of the bombing at Deal, the first indication that the psychiatric department had of the incident was a telephone call from a colleague at the Queen Elizabeth Military Hospital, Walsworth, offering help. This was three and a half days and the bomb had gone off at about 8.30 pm.

Team selection

By 12.45 pm a team had been selected from the three divisions and eight nursing staff who were at the department that morning. Team selection was based on availability, both from a domestic and professional point of view as well as a number of other factors. The selection resulted in a team of four who were chosen for the following reasons.

1. **Chief Petty Officer Medical Assistant—Team manager.** Experience has demonstrated the desirability of having in the Team an individual whose primary focus, even in that of non-emergency, is their first therapy. The RN Medical Assistant is the backbone of the medical branch and in the case of the service rating selected the person nearest with the Royal Marines was an added qualification.
2. **Medical Technician 1.** This service rating had recently completed a Post Traumatic Stress Disorder course in a Navy School and was familiar with the range of psychological trauma experienced by survivors of disaster.
3. **Experienced Navy Nursing Officer.** This nursing officer was chosen because of her gender as well as her nursing skills. It was anticipated that there might be an excessive number of females both wounded and medical in the flow of casualties in which experience has shown that the presence when appropriate of a female on the team significantly enhances the communication of distress.
4. **Consultant psychiatrist.** The author was identified as Team Leader in the light of

In previous SPBENT experience and in regular contact with the Royal Marines which included lecturing on a regular basis at the Commando Training Centre, Lympstone on medical training in military hospitals.

Methodology

By 1.00 pm the seven members had made contact with their families to advise them of the developing situation and together with the other members of the department were waiting for the 1.15 coach from Lympstone in the form of a hire car had been arranged at their request. When the support units from the Royal Marine School of Mines for assistance at the Royal 15 SPBENT. The route was on a previous assignment within the base with the full backing of the Medical Officer in Charge Royal Naval Hospital, Devon. The topic arose concerning the transportation of the Team and travelling in the form of the driver was also used to educate the medical personnel and in anticipation, in the light of information already available, where the problems might lie. Hence the advantage of being independently mobile.

Braking and being de-braked

On arrival at Deal, the team was briefing the local medical staff. The Team Leader then made contact with the Commanding Officer of the Base in order to brief them on facts as to the composition of the team and the medical needs of operations scheduled in that briefing was the intention to be received, days later. Early on it was discovered that, for good reasons, the Team and Marine Bandmen and Women had been with them. The full photography equipment which permitted the keeping together of those caught up in an accident to facilitate recall and working through the emotional trauma. The Commanding Officer advised the advice in recent days was on leave and by the Wednesday evening all had returned. It was also advised that several interviews be arranged to meet as possible. The effect on the morale of the team and the team when the final de-braked position on the Monday morning was very obvious. The decision to provide the full Band through Deal was given at the time following those who had failed was obviously following discussion between the Principal Director of Mines and the Team Leader.

In the days that followed, key groups were briefed as to what might follow in the way of emotional reactions, the emphasis being on the

normality of these reactions to an abnormal experience. The room up was some working group of local Contact Practitioners, some of whom had been severely involved in the scope work. It was this that it was important to allow them the opportunity to explore what the scene was doing with the demands of their patients.

O'Connell/Medical support

A vital factor of the SPBENT concept is that of social communication. For the team to have credibility with the community being served there was a need for various aspects of information gathered on an individual basis. As for the team part, the team were asked to speak as individuals it was still the team concept that regular meetings be held between the O'Connell and local teams. These also served to prevent the duplication of effort and to alert the team as a whole to where the problems were developing. There was as well the constant reminder of the team's role. For perhaps most of all it was demonstrating, in example, the importance of cohesion in cohesion and communication. The local medical team were involved in some of these O'Connell. The mutual support aspect applied to each member of the team in turn, at the time of the Team Leader, it demonstrated as being used to feel one afternoon for a rest, as there was perceived to be 'burning' that is to be better to have one or being overlooked occasionally.

Location

When considering the necessity of sea and rain, the team was asked to share the same second sea device. On this occasion the team was able to use water in the back Bay. This had the advantage of being relatively calm without being too close to the beach and had was an obvious base for a team working within the medical system. Being based there also allowed the team to take over the running of the medical facilities for a few nights. That the afternoon the team worked there some much worked for. There is nothing on the team a weekend that looks like an accident (which occurred) to all extent and therefore they are doctors and nurses and their credibility with the military depends as much on retaining their medical skills as well as developing special expertise.

Parallels

The health aspect to be able to work in the field is at least as obvious, adapting to the conditions prevailing at the time. On that occasion the

team were able to use a toilet tent (let's call it with no judgement from the men) with simple space for standing and short runs outside, too, as required. The constant availability of simple hot water, both for drinks and bathing/washing, worked wonders for them doing the serving as well as those being served. Of particular importance was the use of a telephone which allowed the serving team always constant communication with the team's base and stores.

Follow up

The need to establish a pull out distance has already been referred to there. This is pointed for two reasons, of which the most important is to reinforce the Expedition concept, ie the necessity as expected to sleep near it has motivated its own reasons. For the men to stay longer would suggest otherwise. The second reason is to preserve the team's own health. Working a 16 hour day as such an exceptionally charged atmosphere is demanding. It may develop, never-fading, situations by any need to sleep disrupted.

Follow up

The team has visited Oval twice since the original deployment. The second visit was in November 1988 and allowed for follow up of some of the 74 subjects, originally recruited, being them at risk of significant adjustment reactions. Twelve different groups of people who were directly or indirectly affected by the bombing were identified. For the most part, the team chose to concentrate on survivors both injured and non-injured, and the relatives of key Camp personnel. A deliberate policy of not contacting the teams' response beyond the Camp boundary was made, if only isolated responses were wanted. The twelve groups identified were:

1. Ignored survivors
2. Non injured survivors
3. Those who might have been there
4. Relatives of the dead

5. Relatives of a, b, and c
6. Relatives
7. Witnesses
8. Medical teams
9. Command
10. Curia
11. Correspondents
12. Those previously mentioned

The team was particularly concerned of the least group, ie a current of the bombing of the Green Inquiry in Regent's Park 1987 was due to attend the 1987 Progression Commission. It is noted that the 1987 Progression Commission was held in 1987 at the progressive department of ANH (Haber). The third visit in February 1990 was to see of wrapping up the team response and a final report of the Commanding Officer.

SUMMARY

The request for assistance from the Command, on the advice of the medical staff, reflected earlier education of such personnel. The ability to respond within an hour of being contacted to do so was the result of constant paper exercises and the great establishment of preparation spread by Command/Management. The importance of working in agreed, standard, positions (MOR) should be to be seen to be doing so, as it is never emphasized. When team struggling through with the aftermath of disaster, such support is most likely to result from team working, rather than guidelines and simple principles. When possible, the team should consist of members known to have been there at the continuously being served. All team factors applied in the 1988/89 response in Oval.

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systems (starting with Sargent's report of 1877)

Medical Statistics in Microcomputer. R. A. Brown and J. Korman. *Br. J. Med.* 1990; 101: 1046. *British Medical Journal* December 15/90. UK £6.95. French £10.00.

This is a small reference book which attempts, first, to explain how modern statistical programs can help calculate the statistics of interest and, second, then, to provide the user with references to the software packages, manuals and documentation. It does not, however, contain any descriptions of these packages, which means every body must now (re)discover which package to apply to any data dependent on the design of sample, sampling

method, situation and so on. It might also have, one should prefer, various statistical methods in various circumstances.

However, it does highlight many of the traps in applying statistical software to the analysis of the subject. It goes into depth on how to calculate data and to make sure the data values are correct. It also deals with the subject of errors, errors software develop with statistical programs (there is a danger that people can put data into the software without adequately understanding whether the statistical method used is appropriate for use). Overall it is a useful book that is, given, useful mainly to make use of a statistical package only to, using, the computer, have already made it easy, or, even, or, with a more than book on medical statistics.

Obituary

Surgeon Captain David Herbert Kenneth CBE Royal Navy died 14 September 1990 in his 64th year.

David Kenneth was born on 24 October 1926 in Chingford, Essex. He qualified as Quoniam I, a naval doctor, in July 1951 and was a member of the Royal Naval Medical Staff.

He joined the Royal Navy as a Surgeon's Apprentice on 11 July 1950 and continued Surgeon's Apprentice Commissioned 1 July 1952 and Surgeon Commissioned 9 July 1955.

In October 1958 he was appointed as RANF Fitch to Fleet Medical Officer on the South of Scotland, Newcomen and West India Station until June 1959 when they were merged as RANF Station. He went to the South Quarters, Trinidad, in 1959. In December 1960 he was sent to RANF St. John's in Barbados. In 1962 he was again in RANF St. John's as Surgeon's Medical Officer followed by three months as RANF St. Vincent. In 1963 he was appointed as Surgeon on the ship HMS *London* in July 1964 as Medical Officer in Charge (RANF) London. He was responsible for the running of the hospital and was granted the senior rank of Surgeon Captain and his promotion on the medical rank of Surgeon Captain in December 1964. In September 1965 he was appointed

as Medical Officer in Charge (RANF) *Tromsø* where he served for nearly three years. On return to the UK in August 1968 he served as RANF Station, Remy as Medical Officer in Charge until 1970, shortly before being appointed as RANF Station, Surgeon Captain in charge of the Hospital and staff. There and a half years later he went to RANF Station, a medical post office in Norway until his Quarters Station as Medical Officer in Charge. His last appointment on the active list as RN was placed on the list and it was in October 1980.

In October 1981 he was appointed CBE. He was promoted CBE in 1987.

We have recently heard of the death of Surgeon Lieutenant Commander P. B. Morgan (David) born 9 December 1902 and of Surgeon Commander J. B. (John) Morgan (John) born 17 November 1904. We have also heard of the death of Surgeon Lieutenant Commander (R) D. B. W. (Bill) Morgan born 17 February 1904 and of Surgeon Commander J. B. (John) Morgan, born 17 March 1904. They were all members of the same family.

[The text in this section is extremely faint and largely illegible. It appears to be a single paragraph of text, possibly a continuation from the previous page. The content is difficult to discern but seems to discuss psychological or behavioral aspects related to the study's findings.]

SERVICE NEWS

ROYAL NAVAL MEDICAL AND DENTAL OFFICERS

NEW LEAD BONDERS 1961

Comparison of the (Bath
Surgery Room) (Admiral R. J. Snow LPO CBE CBE)

APPROXIMATES AND PROJECTIONS

As Surgeon Surgeon General
(Admiral and (Bath))
1 January 1961

Surgeon Room (Admiral D. A. Lumsden LPO CBE)

As Medical Officer in Command
Royal Naval Hospital, Portsmouth
1 January 1961
Surgeon Captain M. J. Moore

As President of 'Royal Naval'
1 January 1961

Surgeon Commander R. J. Lumsden CBE

To Surgeon Lieutenant Commander
P. W. Dwyer, R. D. S. Wyle

To Surgeon Lieutenant Commander CBE
R. W. Auld, A. P. F. W. R. D. S. Wyle
P. W. Dwyer, C. W. Wyle
D. J. M. Wyle, R. M. W. Wyle

To Surgeon Lieutenant
D. J. Edwards

To Acting Surgeon Lieutenant
D. P. Edwards

Presented to Surgeon for Promotion
20 June 1966

To Surgeon Captain
M. W. Wyle

To Surgeon Commander
D. N. Lumsden, J. C. Wyle, A. W. Wyle
A. J. Wyle

To Surgeon Commander (D)
J. D. Wyle

HIGHER QUALIFICATIONS

Surgeon Lieutenant Commander P. W. Lumsden, —
P. W. Wyle
Surgeon Lieutenant Commander C. D. Wyle, —
P. W. Wyle

EXHIBITIONS, SENIOR MEDICAL OFFICERS AND MEDICAL OFFICERS

The following professional examinations
are announced:

Surgeon General

(1961-1962)

Surgeon Lieutenant Commander D. N. Lumsden

Dental Officer

Surgeon Lieutenant Commander C. W. Wyle

Surgeon

(1961-1962)

Surgeon Lieutenant Commander P. W. Wyle

Surgeon

Surgeon Lieutenant Commander C. D. Wyle

Surgeon Lieutenant

Surgeon Lieutenant Commander C. D. Wyle

Surgeon Lieutenant

Surgeon Lieutenant Commander C. D. Wyle

EXHIBITION

Surgeon Lieutenant P. W. Wyle, 1961-1962, 1963-1964, 1965-1966, 1967-1968, 1969-1970, 1971-1972, 1973-1974, 1975-1976, 1977-1978, 1979-1980, 1981-1982, 1983-1984, 1985-1986, 1987-1988, 1989-1990, 1991-1992, 1993-1994, 1995-1996, 1997-1998, 1999-2000, 2001-2002, 2003-2004, 2005-2006, 2007-2008, 2009-2010, 2011-2012, 2013-2014, 2015-2016, 2017-2018, 2019-2020, 2021-2022, 2023-2024, 2025-2026, 2027-2028, 2029-2030, 2031-2032, 2033-2034, 2035-2036, 2037-2038, 2039-2040, 2041-2042, 2043-2044, 2045-2046, 2047-2048, 2049-2050, 2051-2052, 2053-2054, 2055-2056, 2057-2058, 2059-2060, 2061-2062, 2063-2064, 2065-2066, 2067-2068, 2069-2070, 2071-2072, 2073-2074, 2075-2076, 2077-2078, 2079-2080, 2081-2082, 2083-2084, 2085-2086, 2087-2088, 2089-2090, 2091-2092, 2093-2094, 2095-2096, 2097-2098, 2099-2100, 2101-2102, 2103-2104, 2105-2106, 2107-2108, 2109-2110, 2111-2112, 2113-2114, 2115-2116, 2117-2118, 2119-2120, 2121-2122, 2123-2124, 2125-2126, 2127-2128, 2129-2130, 2131-2132, 2133-2134, 2135-2136, 2137-2138, 2139-2140, 2141-2142, 2143-2144, 2145-2146, 2147-2148, 2149-2150, 2151-2152, 2153-2154, 2155-2156, 2157-2158, 2159-2160, 2161-2162, 2163-2164, 2165-2166, 2167-2168, 2169-2170, 2171-2172, 2173-2174, 2175-2176, 2177-2178, 2179-2180, 2181-2182, 2183-2184, 2185-2186, 2187-2188, 2189-2190, 2191-2192, 2193-2194, 2195-2196, 2197-2198, 2199-2200, 2201-2202, 2203-2204, 2205-2206, 2207-2208, 2209-2210, 2211-2212, 2213-2214, 2215-2216, 2217-2218, 2219-2220, 2221-2222, 2223-2224, 2225-2226, 2227-2228, 2229-2230, 2231-2232, 2233-2234, 2235-2236, 2237-2238, 2239-2240, 2241-2242, 2243-2244, 2245-2246, 2247-2248, 2249-2250, 2251-2252, 2253-2254, 2255-2256, 2257-2258, 2259-2260, 2261-2262, 2263-2264, 2265-2266, 2267-2268, 2269-2270, 2271-2272, 2273-2274, 2275-2276, 2277-2278, 2279-2280, 2281-2282, 2283-2284, 2285-2286, 2287-2288, 2289-2290, 2291-2292, 2293-2294, 2295-2296, 2297-2298, 2299-2300, 2301-2302, 2303-2304, 2305-2306, 2307-2308, 2309-2310, 2311-2312, 2313-2314, 2315-2316, 2317-2318, 2319-2320, 2321-2322, 2323-2324, 2325-2326, 2327-2328, 2329-2330, 2331-2332, 2333-2334, 2335-2336, 2337-2338, 2339-2340, 2341-2342, 2343-2344, 2345-2346, 2347-2348, 2349-2350, 2351-2352, 2353-2354, 2355-2356, 2357-2358, 2359-2360, 2361-2362, 2363-2364, 2365-2366, 2367-2368, 2369-2370, 2371-2372, 2373-2374, 2375-2376, 2377-2378, 2379-2380, 2381-2382, 2383-2384, 2385-2386, 2387-2388, 2389-2390, 2391-2392, 2393-2394, 2395-2396, 2397-2398, 2399-2400, 2401-2402, 2403-2404, 2405-2406, 2407-2408, 2409-2410, 2411-2412, 2413-2414, 2415-2416, 2417-2418, 2419-2420, 2421-2422, 2423-2424, 2425-2426, 2427-2428, 2429-2430, 2431-2432, 2433-2434, 2435-2436, 2437-2438, 2439-2440, 2441-2442, 2443-2444, 2445-2446, 2447-2448, 2449-2450, 2451-2452, 2453-2454, 2455-2456, 2457-2458, 2459-2460, 2461-2462, 2463-2464, 2465-2466, 2467-2468, 2469-2470, 2471-2472, 2473-2474, 2475-2476, 2477-2478, 2479-2480, 2481-2482, 2483-2484, 2485-2486, 2487-2488, 2489-2490, 2491-2492, 2493-2494, 2495-2496, 2497-2498, 2499-2500, 2501-2502, 2503-2504, 2505-2506, 2507-2508, 2509-2510, 2511-2512, 2513-2514, 2515-2516, 2517-2518, 2519-2520, 2521-2522, 2523-2524, 2525-2526, 2527-2528, 2529-2530, 2531-2532, 2533-2534, 2535-2536, 2537-2538, 2539-2540, 2541-2542, 2543-2544, 2545-2546, 2547-2548, 2549-2550, 2551-2552, 2553-2554, 2555-2556, 2557-2558, 2559-2560, 2561-2562, 2563-2564, 2565-2566, 2567-2568, 2569-2570, 2571-2572, 2573-2574, 2575-2576, 2577-2578, 2579-2580, 2581-2582, 2583-2584, 2585-2586, 2587-2588, 2589-2590, 2591-2592, 2593-2594, 2595-2596, 2597-2598, 2599-2600, 2601-2602, 2603-2604, 2605-2606, 2607-2608, 2609-2610, 2611-2612, 2613-2614, 2615-2616, 2617-2618, 2619-2620, 2621-2622, 2623-2624, 2625-2626, 2627-2628, 2629-2630, 2631-2632, 2633-2634, 2635-2636, 2637-2638, 2639-2640, 2641-2642, 2643-2644, 2645-2646, 2647-2648, 2649-2650, 2651-2652, 2653-2654, 2655-2656, 2657-2658, 2659-2660, 2661-2662, 2663-2664, 2665-2666, 2667-2668, 2669-2670, 2671-2672, 2673-2674, 2675-2676, 2677-2678, 2679-2680, 2681-2682, 2683-2684, 2685-2686, 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REMOVED FROM ACTIVE LIST

Major (Late) Capt Commander J. W. Polakowski
(Retired)

REMOVED FROM

Major (Late) Capt Commander L. D. Brown
(Capt)
Major (Late) Capt Commander A. M. Arnold
(Major)
Major (Late) Capt Commander A. P. Barker
(Major)



Left to right: Major (Late) Capt Commander J. W. Polakowski, Major (Late) Capt Commander L. D. Brown, Major (Late) Capt Commander A. M. Arnold, Major (Late) Capt Commander A. P. Barker.

JOURNAL of the ROYAL NAVAL MEDICAL SERVICE

(The Ministry of Defence does not accept a responsibility for the contents of this Journal)

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*Manuscripts should be prepared as the Vancouver style. They should be typewritten on both sides of the page using a standard 12-point serif typeface such as Times New Roman. The text should be double-spaced with 10 mm margins. The title page should be typed on a separate sheet. A cover sheet with the title and author's name should be typed on a separate sheet. The manuscript should be prepared as a single document.

Values and alternatives should be reflected in the text. Tables should be typed and double-spaced, with a space between them. Figures should be individually drawn, making the allowance for the appropriate margins. Color plates and slide photographs should be submitted separately whenever possible. Maps and aerial photographs should be shown on the boards, which should be available to examinees.

It is known that the spectral connectivity of the graph G , in which the nodes are the agents, is the key to the task of the set of all robots. Indeed, as the nodes of the graph become more and more sparse, the flow of information is reduced (see, for example, [10]). Therefore, the main task of the control is the task of the spectral characteristics concerning the graph of the robot network. One of the main values characterizing the spectral characteristics of the graph is the algebraic connectivity of the graph, and the value of this value is the main indicator of the quality of the control.

Reiss HA, Weissman H, Jordan EJ. Cold stresses: effects on the metabolism of herring and on epiphyseal chondrocytes. *Endocrinology* 1979; 105: 2048-55.

1. The Vaccines Code. *Journal des Vaccins* 1999;4:174

1000

1. **RM** and **RMH** go hand in hand (present on this page is a third box, **Crossed out** in the Royal Navy advertisement) officers and ratings and friends in 10, 14, 18, 24, 30, 36, 42, 48, 54, 60, 66, 72, 78, 84, 90, 96, 102, 108, 114, 120, 126, 132, 138, 144, 150, 156, 162, 168, 174, 180, 186, 192, 198, 204, 210, 216, 222, 228, 234, 240, 246, 252, 258, 264, 270, 276, 282, 288, 294, 300, 306, 312, 318, 324, 330, 336, 342, 348, 354, 360, 366, 372, 378, 384, 390, 396, 402, 408, 414, 420, 426, 432, 438, 444, 450, 456, 462, 468, 474, 480, 486, 492, 498, 504, 510, 516, 522, 528, 534, 540, 546, 552, 558, 564, 570, 576, 582, 588, 594, 600, 606, 612, 618, 624, 630, 636, 642, 648, 654, 660, 666, 672, 678, 684, 690, 696, 702, 708, 714, 720, 726, 732, 738, 744, 750, 756, 762, 768, 774, 780, 786, 792, 798, 804, 810, 816, 822, 828, 834, 840, 846, 852, 858, 864, 870, 876, 882, 888, 894, 900, 906, 912, 918, 924, 930, 936, 942, 948, 954, 960, 966, 972, 978, 984, 990, 996, 1002, 1008, 1014, 1020, 1026, 1032, 1038, 1044, 1050, 1056, 1062, 1068, 1074, 1080, 1086, 1092, 1098, 1104, 1110, 1116, 1122, 1128, 1134, 1140, 1146, 1152, 1158, 1164, 1170, 1176, 1182, 1188, 1194, 1200, 1206, 1212, 1218, 1224, 1230, 1236, 1242, 1248, 1254, 1260, 1266, 1272, 1278, 1284, 1290, 1296, 1302, 1308, 1314, 1320, 1326, 1332, 1338, 1344, 1350, 1356, 1362, 1368, 1374, 1380, 1386, 1392, 1398, 1404, 1410, 1416, 1422, 1428, 1434, 1440, 1446, 1452, 1458, 1464, 1470, 1476, 1482, 1488, 1494, 1500, 1506, 1512, 1518, 1524, 1530, 1536, 1542, 1548, 1554, 1560, 1566, 1572, 1578, 1584, 1590, 1596, 1602, 1608, 1614, 1620, 1626, 1632, 1638, 1644, 1650, 1656, 1662, 1668, 1674, 1680, 1686, 1692, 1698, 1704, 1710, 1716, 1722, 1728, 1734, 1740, 1746, 1752, 1758, 1764, 1770, 1776, 1782, 1788, 1794, 1800, 1806, 1812, 1818, 1824, 1830, 1836, 1842, 1848, 1854, 1860, 1866, 1872, 1878, 1884, 1890, 1896, 1902, 1908, 1914, 1920, 1926, 1932, 1938, 1944, 1950, 1956, 1962, 1968, 1974, 1980, 1986, 1992, 1998, 2004, 2010, 2016, 2022, 2028, 2034, 2040, 2046, 2052, 2058, 2064, 2070, 2076, 2082, 2088, 2094, 2100, 2106, 2112, 2118, 2124, 2130, 2136, 2142, 2148, 2154, 2160, 2166, 2172, 2178, 2184, 2190, 2196, 2202, 2208, 2214, 2220, 2226, 2232, 2238, 2244, 2250, 2256, 2262, 2268, 2274, 2280, 2286, 2292, 2298, 2304, 2310, 2316, 2322, 2328, 2334, 2340, 2346, 2352, 2358, 2364, 2370, 2376, 2382, 2388, 2394, 2400, 2406, 2412, 2418, 2424, 2430, 2436, 2442, 2448, 2454, 2460, 2466, 2472, 2478, 2484, 2490, 2496, 2502, 2508, 2514, 2520, 2526, 2532, 2538, 2544, 2550, 2556, 2562, 2568, 2574, 2580, 2586, 2592, 2598, 2604, 2610, 2616, 2622, 2628, 2634, 2640, 2646, 2652, 2658, 2664, 2670, 2676, 2682, 2688, 2694, 2700, 2706, 2712, 2718, 2724, 2730, 2736, 2742, 2748, 2754, 2760, 2766, 2772, 2778, 2784, 2790, 2796, 2802, 2808, 2814, 2820, 2826, 2832, 2838, 2844, 2850, 2856, 2862, 2868, 2874, 2880, 2886, 2892, 2898, 2904, 2910, 2916, 2922, 2928, 2934, 2940, 2946, 2952, 2958, 2964, 2970, 2976, 2982, 2988, 2994, 3000, 3006, 3012, 3018, 3024, 3030, 3036, 3042, 3048, 3054, 3060, 3066, 3072, 3078, 3084, 3090, 3096, 3102, 3108, 3114, 3120, 3126, 3132, 3138, 3144, 3150, 3156, 3162, 3168, 3174, 3180, 3186, 3192, 3198, 3204, 3210, 3216, 3222, 3228, 3234, 3240, 3246, 3252, 3258, 3264, 3270, 3276, 3282, 3288, 3294, 3300, 3306, 3312, 3318, 3324, 3330, 3336, 3342, 3348, 3354, 3360, 3366, 3372, 3378, 3384, 3390, 3396, 3402, 3408, 3414, 3420, 3426, 3432, 3438, 3444, 3450, 3456, 3462, 3468, 3474, 3480, 3486, 3492, 3498, 3504, 3510, 3516, 3522, 3528, 3534, 3540, 3546, 3552, 3558, 3564, 3570, 3576, 3582, 3588, 3594, 3600, 3606, 3612, 3618, 3624, 3630, 3636, 3642, 3648, 3654, 3660, 3666, 3672, 3678, 3684, 3690, 3696, 3702, 3708, 3714, 3720, 3726, 3732, 3738, 3744, 3750, 3756, 3762, 3768, 3774, 3780, 3786, 3792, 3798, 3804, 3810, 3816, 3822, 3828, 3834, 3840, 3846, 3852, 3858, 3864, 3870, 3876, 3882, 3888, 3894, 3900, 3906, 3912, 3918, 3924, 3930, 3936, 3942, 3948, 3954, 3960, 3966, 3972, 3978, 3984, 3990, 3996, 4002, 4008, 4014, 4020, 4026, 4032, 4038, 4044, 4050, 4056, 4062, 4068, 4074, 4080, 4086, 4092, 4098, 4104, 4110, 4116, 4122, 4128, 4134, 4140, 4146, 4152, 4158, 4164, 4170, 4176, 4182, 4188, 4194, 4200, 4206, 4212, 4218, 4224

All measurements relating to atmospheric and surface use of albedo of surface materials have been made at the National Research Institute, Mountain View, Institute of Desert Studies, Arizona State Univ., Tempe, AZ 85287.

Abstract

Authors' addresses: Martin and Tordard Gjovik are at the University of Oslo, Norway.





Transport ship *USS LST-1162* being towed by *USS LST-1162* the smallest transport ship during the conflict and the only one.

Ice skating injuries: a survey of cases seen in an Accident and Emergency department

A. P. Newton

Abstract

Ice skating as a winter activity has no rules as well as its benefits. A typical injury is described which documents the problems pertaining to a casualty hospitalized after injury to an ice skating biomechanical knee joint. Details and patterns of injury are discussed.

BACKGROUND

It is well known by sportsmen and doctors alike that the act of participating in a sport carries with it a risk of injury. It is also recognized that certain sports such as ice skating, have a particularly high risk of injury associated with them.

A recent study from Finland¹ looked specifically at injuries sustained by children and in the study group sports-related injuries accounted for over 20% of all documented cases of recorded injury.

There have been four previous publications on the medical literature reporting on sports-injurying in public ice rinks.²⁻⁵ These were conducted by accident and emergency departments shortly after the opening of a public ice skating rink within their catchment area. All three document a residual pattern in the departmental workload with ice skating injuries accounting for between 2.1% and 4.0% of all recorded injuries seen by the departments.

One study² was unable to return to court figures for the risk of sustaining an injury as an ice skater, the calculated overall risk of injury

accounting accident and emergency department admissions being 0.11%.

AIMS

This study was designed to document the injuries resulting from accidents in the newly opened ice rink in Liverpool, Liverpool, by defining the protocol their specific aims were achieved.

- 1 To determine the age range of people who fell because of the pattern group (who, when and why)
- 2 To make an assessment of the type and severity of injuries resulting from ice skating in the ice rink.
- 3 To make an assessment of the impact of the opening of the ice rink on the work load of the department.
- 4 To calculate an approximate figure for the risk of sustaining an injury in the ice rink for comparison with that calculated from previous studies.

METHODS

For a three month period following the opening of the Liverpool Ice Rink, the Liverpool and Liverpool Departments at the Royal Naval Hospital, Haverley, completed record systems forms for all persons attending the department who had been injured at the ice rink.

Physiotherapy helped complete the first part of a problems recording system, cases of recorded injuries reported, method of injury and time of presentation.

After treatment, the casualty officer completed the second part of the problems record

Angela Newton Newton is currently a research fellow for the Royal Naval College, Greenwich.

ing diagnosed in a more detailed follow up programme. The casualty officer also classified injuries as being: significant (those requiring either hospital admission or hospital follow up) or non significant (those discharged to their home with no further treatment and those in need of simple follow up such as return to normal rest).

First aid records maintained at the air raid were also scrutinized to establish the number of minor injuries treated by the on-site First Aid staff during the study period.

RESULTS

During the three months of the study period, 34 (3.1%) out of 1,100 personnel sent to the Accident and Emergency Department stated that an accident at the air raid had been the cause of their injury. Over the same period the First Aid staff at the air raid attended 126 patients, 31 of which were subsequently sent to the hospital, all caused by the air raid scene to be in need of medical attention were referred to the Accident and Emergency Department at Stirling as being the nearest casualty department to the raid.



Fig. 1. Distribution of the 34 recorded air raid casualties by age.

Epidemiological analysis of the study group

1. Area of residence. Seventy six per cent of the study group lived within five miles of the air raid, the remainder all lived within five and 25 miles of the raid in radius which includes the cities of Portsmouth, Wexham and Southampton.

2. Working experience. Of the study group 54% described themselves as being casual employees or seamen, the remainder classifying themselves as: patients, one term or expert.
3. Age of victim. The majority of the study group were teenagers and young adults, the peak of participation being from the 16-24 year old age group (47%).
4. Time of presentation to the A & E department. The majority of presentations to the department occurred predominantly during the hours of operation of the raid. The peak time for presentation was the four-hour period from 20.00 to 23.00.
5. Day in which injury occurred. Over half of the patients sustained their injury on the weekend (Friday or night through to the day morning). The most common day on which to be a statistical figure was Saturday.
6. Mechanism of injury. Unprovoked fall onto the air raid scene was the cause of injury to 44% of patients. Other causes quoted were: collapse with another object falling on both the risk factor and with an injury (21%).



Fig. 2. Pie chart showing a breakdown of the mechanism for the mechanism of injury as caused by the process.

Analysis of the type/severity of injury sustained

Thirty patients (34%) sustained definite lacerations, 34 (40%) sustained minor muscle/skin/skin damage (minor abrasions/bruises/contusions) and 17 (20%) sustained lacerations (Fig. 3). Thirty-seven patients (43%) were deemed to have received significant injuries. It was more notable that a greater proportion of the injuries sustained by patients in the age groups at the extremes of the age range were deemed as significant (Fig. 4). Fifty-four per cent of the injuries sustained by senior skaters were significant compared with 29% among the previously reported skaters.

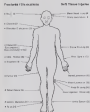


Fig. 3. A diagrammatic representation of the observed distribution of injuries.

Treatment and disposal of patients

While in the Accident and Emergency Department a significant proportion of the patients in the study group required further diagnostic and/or therapeutic procedures. Table 2 summarizes the in-hospital treatment given.



Fig. 4. Histogram to show the percentage of significant injuries within each age group as a proportion of the total number of patients in that age group.

The risk of sustaining an injury

From the ice rink's figures the estimation of the risk (217/217 exposures) over the first three months of operation, the risk of sustaining an injury requiring medical and/or emergency department attention was calculated as 0.037%. By combining the data from the study group and from the ice rink data and records an approximate figure for the overall risk of sustaining an injury was calculated to be of the order of 0.07% (exposures to a previously published report).¹

Table 2. Investigation performed/therapeutic given within the Accident and Emergency Department.

Number of patients requiring X-ray	104
Number of patients requiring stitches	64 (100%)
Number of patients requiring a plaster or a fracture collar cast or in the emergency department	106 (100%)
Number of patients requiring a plaster of Paris or immobilization of an injury	104 (100%)
Number of patients requiring wound care only	14 (100%)

DISCUSSION

Over the three months following the opening of the new public ice rink 81 patients presented to the Accident and Emergency Department

following accidental injury at the rink. As might be expected, severe injuries outnumbered injuries to fingers, and teenagers and young adults outnumbered the other age groups.

Most injuries resulted from an unexpected fall onto the ice, an unpredictable and largely uncontrollable mechanism of injury. The type of injury varied from lacerations and abrasions to long bone and skull fractures, the most commonly reported form of the injury being fractured wrist bones, hand and ankle.

In this study, ice rink casualties accounted for 7.17% of the department's workload, a figure that correlates well with the observations of previous studies. Of significance to the Accident and Emergency Department workload, the majority of injuries occurred in the evenings and at the weekends, ie. at times both of the rink's opening hours and of leisure time availability to the widest population of the area. Also of relevance to the department's workload was the high proportion for investigation (65.6%, especially) and for admission to hospital (31.6%), indicating reduced reliance on minor injuries in the study group.

Although only an approximation (as inevitably some rink users took their injuries home with them), the calculated risk of sustaining an injury on the rink compared favourably with that from a previous study.² The more reliable figure calculated for the risk of sustaining an injury, including accident and emergency department attendance, is acceptably low at 0.0075 for an adult user.

CONCLUSION

Increased availability of leisure time over recent years, combined with an explosive growth

in the sport and leisure industry, has resulted in the population of this country spending more time in sporting activities than ever before. Although increased public participation in sport is recognised as being of benefit to the general health status of the population, and as such is something to be encouraged, it must be recognised that there will be a resulting increase in the number of sports-related injuries whilst the population, resulting in an increased demand being placed upon certain sectors of the health service.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank the staff of the Accident and Emergency Department in the Royal Naval Hospital, Haslar, for their help with this project. Thanks are also due to the staff of the Computer for Health for their cooperation and understanding.

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The retrograde tunnel: a method for the fixation of central venous catheters in the military environment

R. A. Whitham, T. J. W. Beal, J. A. Thomas and G. A. Cline

100

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1000

A variety of approaches have in the control room and to controlling have been employed both under local and remote conditions.

The majority of CFCs are various gas and controlled engineering fluids or liquid heat-transfer mediums.

Coffin CVCs were developed as a means of ensuring long-term system access to under-25s requiring parental consent (case of LAMARCA therapy). The information age has a contractual relationship that flows in the vein, and the coffin is automatically

One of the earliest descriptions of the action of the ionizing of LNT was for personnel protection.

Third, none of the various commercially available methods for finding an optimal route have all been tailored to an enterprise approach because the flow chart of the blackboard-type CPE has been unambiguously. Thus, the complexity of flow-based in the last through the internal flow also can be flow-based, which is not only the separate complexity internal, usually for consideration in the system.

This means that the wall on which the body of the CVC depends has had to remove the system of the sublimation tunnel which separates it from the rest of the world. The direct contact of the body of the tunnel with the rest of the world is the only way to maintain the wall.

An unsegmented, stiff strand is called CVC. In use in the first generation, through various studies, techniques, and standards, monomers are required to hold the CVC in place while it is in segment with the stiff section. The recent paper^{1,2} of various methods of measuring rigid CVCs in studies with some of the authors is a testimony to the continuing problem.

This is the first description of the use of the retrograde method which has been made possible by the use of a polyurethane PVC with a detectable leak (Call Call, Tami, Sakuramoto).

Gregory L. Weinstein, MD, PhD, is a senior associate professor in the Women's Hospital Center for Healthcare Inquiry in Immunology, Cleveland Heights. Gregory L. Weinstein, MD, PhD, is currently associated as Royal Victoria Hospital, Windsor as a Gregory L. Weinstein, MD, PhD is a consultant in surgery at the Academic & Emergency Department, Queen's University Hospital, Portsmouth, UK. Dr. Weinstein is a 1986 year Medical Student at Northwestern University Medical School.

A method is described which involves anastomosis and secure CVC insertion.

TECHNIQUE

The procedure may be carried out under tourniquet or general anaesthesia. The central vein is cannulated by whatever technique is favoured. Our standard approach is a percutaneous puncture of the right subclavian vein via a 1.5 cm. subclavicular incision (Fig. 1). The vein dilator is introduced followed by a suitable sheath through which the proximal distal end of the Coll-Cath 16G catheter is introduced.



Fig. 1 Showing Coll-Cath being introduced into the right subclavian vein through a suitable, small, incision in the skin to allow the catheter to be fully introduced into the vein leaving the cuff at the skin surface.

At this stage, the cuff is being in the subclavicular vein around (Fig. 2). The flow restrictor is then cut off the proximal end of the CVC and the vein end sheared over the next cannulating end. This is then pulled subcutaneously to a point in the mid-thoracic line at the level of the nipple and delivered through a 2 mm incision. The cannulated venous is cut to a convenient length and a second flow restrictor applied to the neck as firmly attached (Fig. 3).

After subclavicular insertion, a small artery (arterial puncture) is cannulated by gentle insertion on the CVC beyond the cut into the cuff is pulled into the puncture and the wound closed (Fig. 4).

No further dressing or fixation is required. Nothing with a greater internal diameter than the CVC must be introduced into the subclavicular tunnel so it is not possible to pull the cuff out.

When the CVC is no longer needed, the old



Fig. 2 Showing the catheter being held in position as the subclavian vein with the 'cuff' cuff pulled back over the site marked skin puncture.



Fig. 3 Showing the catheter firmly held in position of subclavicular vein with the 'cuff' cuff pulled back over the site marked skin puncture and the flow restrictor attached.

wound can be repaired under local or general anaesthesia and the cuff is removed. The distal CVC is divided and pulled out at the next site, the cuff and proximal CVC are delivered through the subclavicular site and the wound closed.

RESULTS

Sixty CVCs have been inserted in 13 patients using this technique: mean age 47 years (4 days—82) (mean mean weight 11.6 kg (3.1—44). The mean insertion time was 15 minutes. The CVCs have been in situ for a mean of 110 days (range 15—385) a total of 4,365 catheter days. The cuffs have moved from the puncture on CVCs in 19 boys (mostly easily removed) and there have been no problems with the flow restrictor.



Supervisor of Sales, in New Market International Market Research Corporation, 10000 E. 1st Avenue, Suite 100, Denver, CO 80231. (303) 755-1111. Fax: (303) 755-1112. e-mail: supervisor@newmarket.com.
 International Market Research Corporation, 10000 E. 1st Avenue, Suite 100, Denver, CO 80231. (303) 755-1111. Fax: (303) 755-1112. e-mail: supervisor@newmarket.com.
 Director of Sales, in New Market International Market Research Corporation, 10000 E. 1st Avenue, Suite 100, Denver, CO 80231. (303) 755-1111. Fax: (303) 755-1112. e-mail: supervisor@newmarket.com.

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Stress and infection

D. I. Riddell

Abstract

The pattern of infection reported during Royal Marine training over a four-day period has been established. There were 4 622 infections in the training as compared with 1000 in the 10 weeks of infection hospital admission of recruits prior to the first year of training plus the maintenance of 1000 in the first year of training plus the maintenance of 1000 in the first year of training.

There was a reduction of infection incidence during the first weeks of training when the physical and mental pressures were greatest during the Commando course. This phase coincided with the first year of training. A particularly high incidence of infection was reported in the first year of training.

This is in contrast with physical and mental stress which is reported to be the most important factor in the development of the immune system.

INTRODUCTION

The Commando Training Centre, Royal Air Force, has been used for the purpose of this study. The 10-week training period is reported. The author would like to thank the 1000 recruits who volunteered to participate in this study, and the 1000 recruits who volunteered to participate in this study. The first year of training plus the maintenance of 1000 in the first year of training plus the maintenance of 1000 in the first year of training.

It was also observed that the infection did not seem to be the same that would be expected in the first year of training. The infection was not

found in the first year of training. Conversely there were two cases of Legionnaires' disease during the first year of training. There were 1000 infections in the first year of training as compared with 1000 in the first year of training. There were 1000 infections in the first year of training as compared with 1000 in the first year of training.

Criswell *et al.* (1977) reported on an outbreak of Legionnaires' disease in a military training camp. The incidence was 1000 in the first year of training as compared with 1000 in the first year of training. The incidence was 1000 in the first year of training as compared with 1000 in the first year of training.

There has been speculation that stress and physical training are associated with an increase in infection. This study will examine the effect of infection over a four-year period and discuss the changes that occurred in the incidence of infection over the course.

METHODS

Every two weeks a sample of 1000 recruits from the Commando Training Centre (CTC) was taken. These were taken from the 1000 recruits who volunteered to participate in this study. The 1000 recruits who volunteered to participate in this study were taken from the 1000 recruits who volunteered to participate in this study.

Dr D. I. Riddell is now at the Royal Air Force, 1000 recruits who volunteered to participate in this study. The 1000 recruits who volunteered to participate in this study were taken from the 1000 recruits who volunteered to participate in this study.

Table 1. Infestations of Royal Mailbox nests in 1986-88

	1986	1986	1987	1988	Total
Star wasps	268	473	370	80	1191
Bees (mostly)	592	458	489	519	2058
Isotrichus	267	329	171	328	1095
Other	115	131	80	135	461
Total	1332	1391	1030	952	4696

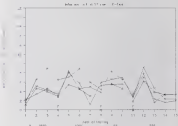


Fig. 2.

correlation with those nests actually at nesting. The sampled insects are evaluated.

Every week the number of nests in each trap was recorded as was their week of nesting. Apparently in the field, this was recorded whenever a nest was repaired or and dozens of solitary wasps were collected. Using this data, the number of infestations due to solitary per 100 nests at risk for each week of nesting was counted. A total of 1948 nests joined L.T.C. during the study period.

RESULTS

There were 6 left segments of infestation, a total of five per 100 nests, weeks. Of these 1141 were also infestations. The results for the four years are shown in Table 1.

The first 10 weeks

This part of the system has changed little over the four years. Figure 2 shows the infestation rates with solitary for the different years.

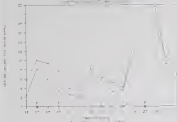


Fig. 1

There is an initial small rise in vole/droppings densities. This is a 40% increase, because an average of 100 men pass from various parts of the country and are here exposed to new infectious challenges. The next peak occurs on weeks 1, 10, 20 and 27. The reasons for living in the field for three or more nights on weeks 4, 8 and 11 just preceding these rises in infection

The second 10 weeks

In 1987 and 1988 the same syllabus was in use. The recruits were in the field for three, or more nights, at weeks 17, 18, 23 and 27. Week 26 was the start of the Commando course. In week 27 they were on their three-night field exercise and the Commando runs were run on weeks 28 and 29. Figure 2 shows the peaks of infection on weeks 17/18, week 23 and weeks 28 up to 29.

Figure 2 shows infection for 1987 when a slightly different syllabus was in use. Field exercise in 1987 was on weeks 17, 25 and 29 with the Commando course starting at week 29.

Peaks of infection appeared at weeks 18, 26 and 27. The rise at week 26 was lessened from 19 to eight but at week 28 there were similar numbers of infections as 1987 and 1988.

In Fig. 4 the results for 1988 are shown. The recruits are in the field on weeks 17, 18 and 27. The Commando course starts at week 24 but in week 25 there is a slightly less successful week of exercise and endurance training. Peaks of infection were noted on weeks 18, 22 and 26. The infection at week 26 matches the reported figures for 1987 but on week 28 the rate has fallen from 17 in 1987 to just six in 1988.

A summary of the changes in the rates of infection for weeks 26, 28, 29 and 30 is shown in Table 2.

Short reports

Figure 3 shows the problem over the four yearly periods of this study. Apart from week 23 in 1981/82, the first year of war to one month, almost all FGR recruit weeks. There is week 28

Table 2. Intake per 100 mixed adults during the Chinook season 1985/86

Week	20	21	22	23	Average
1985	11.0	11.7	9.3	8.6	10.9
1986	14.1	12.7	10.8	8.8	12.3
1987	8.2	10.1	7.4	2.7	8.6
1988	5.0	4.7	6.7	3.1	6.1

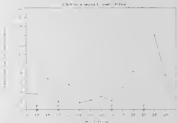


Fig. 2

on the previous seasons: in 1985/86 the rate rose to eight and peaked to 11 in week 23, in week 29 it fell back to six. In 1987 week 36 is four, week 28 is eight and week 29 is three.

The figures for 1988 show that the skin upon the nerve runs above respect for recent weeks and that has been confirmed by body inspection and weighing.

DISCUSSION

It is apparent from the foregoing that there is a

high underlying infection rate of five per 100 recent trapping results. There seem to be two factors that are increasing the infection rate. The first and more obvious is prolonged high levels of sexual and physiological activity as a result of trapping. The introduction of a low virulent virus in that period in late 1987 has had a beneficial effect on skin upon particularly heavily spreading them or more highly so the field points to reduce the infection rate.

The Station at CTC provides a full series

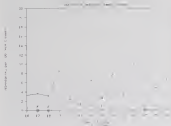


Fig. 4

days a week started to rise and repeat lost virtually when they were looked after being on the field many repeat lost with no obvious problems.

In the first 15 weeks there is a clear season, time between periods of three nights in the field and the occurrence of peaks of infection. This is rapidly obscured in 1983 as the first six weeks because of a three-month outbreak of infection A and B which affected most of the ewes who passed CPM, for example on that land. Certainly the infection A goes clear and repeatable (Fig. 5).

The mixed 12 weeks are more difficult to interpret because of the obvious changes and the high background level of physical and mental stress. It would appear from these results that field exposure seems to be linked with rises in infection rates. The high data on week 22 of 1981, 1983 and 1984 accompanied with a field exposure, may be due to the physical and mental stress of that week of training.

The Commando course can now be compared. This includes a seven night exercise and the Commando tests and is obviously taxing both mentally and physically. In 1983/84 infection rates rose to 20 per 100 infected ewes in week 24. By lengthening the course by a week in 1985 infection rates were slightly reduced. The exposure of a less stressful week just prior to the course in 1985 had seen a great reduction in infection spread. This applies particularly to *Stenotrophomonas* and *Haemophilus* this time (Fig. 6) where rates have fallen up to tenfold between 1981 and 1984. These infections tend to cause considerable losses of training time.¹²

Therefore there appears to be a connection between periods of three or more nights on the field, high levels of mental and physical stress and infection. Furthermore it was unusual with a high level of physical activity (camping, travelling) constant time of being exposed to the training field and usually broken sleep with lots of nighttime activity, no free time and often constant cold and wet. Mates are always rested

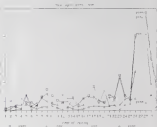


Fig. 1

and life is generally uncomfortable. It is not surprising that the human body does not yet have responded as well to infection such as it might under lesser circumstances.

These findings may perhaps add to our understanding of infectious disease in war. The Ministry of Army Health⁶ suggested that the high levels of infectious diseases in wartime were due to the crowding together of large bodies of men but this may not be the whole story. Traditionally infectious diseases have always been the cause of many casualties from enemy action.⁷ For example in 1944 on the South West Asia Campaign military caused 174 000 casualties to be admitted to hospital while casualties were 12 000. More recently, when the Vietnamese withdrew from Cambodia in 1975, their Commander complained that every out of ten men was suffering from malaria. It is necessary to have an effective control system for malaria prophylaxis to work.¹⁷ The data presented here would also

appear to support the theories presented previously in the national press over the last few years that infectious disease affects war as much as infection. The Royal Air Force scores at the end of training, is normally a top class soldier. Training must be viewed as the average man and physically there will be those who fall below the average level. It is perhaps those men who fall prey to a resulting infectious organism.

CONCLUSIONS

It would appear that there is too evidence to suggest that recruits are more liable to infectious episodes following the rigours of fieldwork. For at least three nights and then very high levels of physical and mental stress as such as the Commando course, may lead to susceptibility to infection. It is further demonstrated the well placed period of convalescence can reduce the occurrence of infectious episodes. Certainly the phenomena described in this paper deserve closer investigation as they are simply the

extension of the manifestations of stress. Even if it were possible to diagnose stress more accurately, this would be of comparative importance not only to the Armed Forces but to any organization where stressful circumstances occur in short periods of reduced stress, unable to produce beneficial results.

The treatment of Naval Medicine is presently carrying out an extensive longitudinal study, to try and determine what is going wrong.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The authors wish to acknowledge the assistance given made by Col Ian Moore and Lt Col Robert Wood. Royal Marines in making these changes in training.

ADDENDUM

In 1980 there were 50 admissions at the Redley with skin injury.

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Table 1 1983 workload per month

Intensive Care Unit Royal Naval Hospital/Starke Journal Extension 1983		On Site at Sea
Total Number of Patients	238	
Male Patients	146	61%
Female Patients	92	39%
Service Patients	67	7%
Service Dependents	3	1.3%
Civilian Patients	278	91.6%
Total Patient Days	3740	
Number of Patients per day	2.0	
Average Stay/Days	3.08	
Number of Deaths	33	14%
Number of Operations	169	
Number of Broken Bones	26	10.9%
Patients Transferred	130	54.6%
Average Patient Visits/week/days	5.8	
Total Patient Visits/week/days	8.08	
Missing Categories		
Category A	Any patient with higher than 1:1 Nurse ratio N/A CARE/ICU/ICU	527 Patient Days 57.6%
Category B	Any patient requiring 1:1 nursing Staff in Nursing Postgraduate Courses Technicians or OTT when not available	218 Patient Days 72.6%
Category C	All other patients	232 Patient Days 29%

problems increase the nursing is all about teamwork. An experienced and trained team not only does the job well but also takes the maximum of day to day problems/emergencies as an order. A well-organised team works rather like a well-oiled machine smoothly. The two verbal communications that exist speak constant time and enhance effectiveness and efficiency.

In RMH Hader the high turnover of staff in 1983 44% of RGNs and 30% of ENCs combined with an increase in the demands placed upon the unit during the summer caused high levels of stress to be experienced by many nurses and consultants who are responsible for the day to day patient management on the main and ICU unit.

When staff nurses were sent to help out, the telephone nursing problem was apparently solved as their nurses were bringing the gap. However, the stress created a nurse really was

presented in their settings and effectively make demands for the remaining patients simultaneously.

Many nurses within their NPH counterparts do not always get to choose what they work. A number had passed Hader's ICU prior to being up to appointment/draft, or have up the service during a few weeks to three months. The lack of staff consistency caused great difficulties with a Hader no longer was there any slack left in the system to provide cover in located really important that any new member of staff be they permanent or temporary was introduced into the work of the intensive care unit quickly and effectively.

An orientation programme was developed to help meet the needs of new staff members however the programme was a mishmash of right words to complete the course, which was to quickly enable the new nurse to help give the team had to be a real professional.

The identification of internal stresses which were perceived as a burden would be essential in the development of any management plan or coping strategies for the staff. A confidential questionnaire was felt to be the most effective tool for this kind of gathering the required information. Emphasizing the confidential aspect of the questionnaire assured that staff also might be reluctant to admit to feeling stressed due to fear of being seen as not being able to cope would give an honest appraisal.

RESEARCH LITERATURE REVIEW

A literature review revealed that stress is perceived for those working in critical care areas such as intensive care or coronary care units. Intensive care units have been reviewed in the literature since their inception in the late 1950s and early 1960s. Over the years much has been written about the stressful psychological experience of being a patient in such a unit and staff members. However, was the stress faced by those working in critical care units. The psychological state of the staff will in part depend on how often they are. The quality of patient care depends greatly on those providing it, thus it is particularly true of the emergency room where a patient's life is at stake.¹⁰

The awareness of the psychological state of the nurse has not come too soon. In 1967 the French Medical Association (BMF)¹¹ published the first report on ICU's noting a distinct disadvantage of this type of health care unit. Work on such units is an emotional strain on the staff. The report acknowledged a knowledge that the ICU's made great psychological demands on the staff, particularly the nurses. Staff turnover is noted as a function of stress and when high is placed upon the outward signs of stressed staff stress and stress on such a working environment.

The late Mervin KLU, of course, knew other variables back in affecting staff turnover. For example, staffing and turnover requirements both were adversely responded by sending to personnel staff to cover following the findings of the Royal Marine barracks in April in September 1967.

The word to decrease staff turnover had been implemented by Wicks¹² who argued that rapid turnover led to an ultimate decrease in the quality of care given. Decline in quality of care leads back into job dissatisfaction, establishing a cycle.

Also, O'Brien¹³ study was one of the first to address the psychological/emotional stresses

facing emergency room nurses. Many recently researchers have studied both the critical and internal stresses. Internal stresses may those located in the work environment, whereas external stresses are those relating to the inner capabilities and personal characteristics of the care giver. Markaba and Taylor¹⁴ found that stress perceived internally correlated in various to heavy workloads, working prolonged in shifts, stressful daily internal stresses. However, it may be remembered that not all stressors are perceived as harmful by all nurses. There can be striking similarities between what is perceived as stressful or satisfying.

A study by Bailey¹⁵ involving 1,800 ICU nurses discussed the point.

Bailey found that categories such as interpersonal relationships and patients care were identified as both major sources of stress and also categories from which nurses received a great amount of satisfaction. The emphasis on the concept of subjective appraisal and stress perception.¹⁶

There is order in environmental or internal demands which cause or through the adaptive resources of the individual.¹⁷

Assuming that stress reactions are controlled by perceptions, individual perceptions appear to be fundamental to the understanding of stress. Stressors may evoke a response in one nurse and quite different type of response in a second nurse. External factors that can only be considered stress-producing if they are perceived by the nurse as such. The optimum has been noted. The external stress cannot pressure more stress than can caused care nurses.¹⁸ These findings supported the above suggestion.

The ICU nurse may suffer stress caused by the reduction of the use, lack of privacy and a feeling of being isolated by the environment. This is especially true when nurse working in a project, but low staffing levels the use of other nurse relief, the nurses being the only limited of communication.

The emergency conditions and constant nature may make the nurse feel like there is a typhoon. There may, however, being periods of freedom with the sudden responsibility of managing emergency situations. A constant state of readiness being required at all times. As every procedure in the ICU is potentially life saving, any error made could be life threatening.¹⁹

Adequate appropriate coping mechanisms

and to be deprived by the training staff to manage the day to day stresses faced on the ICU. Evidence cannot be said to show a weakness in this. The same may derive itself from emotional involvement and further stress by diagnosing the care of the patient and may be mistaken for job¹⁰ In keeping with the view that a feeling of mastery and control over the situation which will decrease feelings of helplessness. Control almost is frequently said to be a coping mechanism on the ICU.

And it seems to be surprising to us, contrary to observe routinely some of the stress on the ICU going and leaving. Even sleeping and eating may be observed phenomena which are unpredictable and unpredictable to the nursing relative.¹¹

Although this type of behaviour is natural among young people working closely together going and leaving the need to relieve stress and as a way of maintaining a reliable routine within the unit.

In summary, the literature is very clearly shared that constant stress directly affects a fully effort the quality of nursing care delivered. It also suggests that nursing management should display a leadership role that decreases the probability of burnout and stressor job satisfaction. This might be done by engaging staff communication and keeping staff involvement in the governing of the unit. Current professional support might enhance the status of ICU nurses to meet the increasing demands in the specialty and maintain their enthusiasm and job satisfaction. However care must be taken to limit a large role of stable, permanent workers who reduce enthusiasm towards new recruits otherwise staff mobility along at the expense of agency nurses and would their job stability.¹²

METHODOLOGY

The questionnaire was constructed following a Delphi¹³ method and consisted mainly upon direct experience as a nursing QJRNNS/BN ICU nurse. Part one, staff were contacted from the survey. Perception of non-work related stress and 14 external work related situations were analysed alongside experience and quality control.

The pilot study carried out at BNH Hospital revealed a 50% response rate of internal questionnaire. Furthermore all members of the questionnaire had been contacted demonstrating that no ambiguity existed in the questionnaire

method. This enabled not only a comparison between external questions on similar ones but also a much broader insight into BNH ICU.

Primary data was collected about (a) past a questionnaire for changes and for view of stress relieving and nursing. Focus on analysis of each unit was limited and separately and particularly changes drawn up. A table showing the impact a stress test then constructed (Table 1 BNH questionnaire Table 2 BNH Hospital). A comparison of external situation was made and a further table constructed (Table 3).

Finally, correlation of results between QJRNNS and BNH was tested on the data from BNH. A non-parametric test Significance Rank Order Correlation was used (Table 4). The result demonstrated a positive correlation.¹⁴

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this research was two fold, firstly, to examine whether high levels of stress existed amongst nurses on the agency care unit at the Royal Naval Hospital, Portsmouth and Haverly and secondly, to explore how to implement a strategy to limit the effects of high levels of external stress on the nursing staff. If stress were seen to be problematic it can be assumed that poor management of stress leads to poor nursing care, job dissatisfaction and diminished potential for further professional development. The literature review highlighted this aspect.

This survey has thrown some light on the reasons that may be encountered on the two units analysed. From the health education viewpoint it has confirmed that high levels of stress are perceived on an individual basis. What may cause this is typically a second survey and although it is most relatively external control over nursing, not all negative. Control is not over based on the sources of both positive stress and satisfaction. Having a picture through what may well be too much like therapeutic experience requires a high level of nursing competence. In nursing this demands the nurse will accept many frustrations, stressors and physical demands, but there are overwhelmed by the stress of 24-hourly duty when the patient leaves the ICU an ideal way to a better standard of health and well being.

However, stressors cannot be perceived as stressful by many nurses on both units. There tend to be looked at more closely to enable managers to explore ways of better planning or training have to deal with these (see Table 2 for the top 10 stressors).

CONFIDENTIAL QUESTIONNAIRE

Please tick the appropriate boxes with a pencil about statements when in your mind

- 1 How you think ☐ is correct ☐
- 2 Length of time since I wrote Legal Nurse Order reports and used reports
- 3 Age less or 60+ ☐ or 60+ ☐
- 4 How often of reasonable time, are we in of the 100 or 100+ years old
- 5 How long have you been at your present job? ☐ year
- 6 Are you from the United States or qualified non-US? ☐ Yes ☐ No
- 7 Please tick the number that best describes how much you need to
- | | | | | |
|-------|--------|--------------|-------|--------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
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- 8 Please tick the number that best describes how much you need to
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- 100 How long have you been at your present job? ☐ year



QUESTION 1 How does the pressure that you subject to in the water affect the waterproofing?

ANSWER 1 The pressure that you subject to in the water affects the waterproofing in the following way:

THE PRESSURE
 (The pressure that you subject to in the water)

THE PRESSURE
 (The pressure that you subject to in the water)

FIGURE 1 **FIGURE 2** **FIGURE 3**



FIGURE 1: The pressure that you subject to in the water affects the waterproofing in the following way:

FIGURE 2: The pressure that you subject to in the water affects the waterproofing in the following way:

FIGURE 3 **FIGURE 4** **FIGURE 5**

FIGURE 3 **FIGURE 4** **FIGURE 5**

FIGURE 3 **FIGURE 4** **FIGURE 5**

FIGURE 3 **FIGURE 4** **FIGURE 5**



FIGURE 3: The pressure that you subject to in the water affects the waterproofing in the following way:

FIGURE 4: The pressure that you subject to in the water affects the waterproofing in the following way:

[illegible][illegible]

1. The first step is to identify the problem. In this case, the problem is that the company is not meeting its sales targets. The second step is to analyze the data. The third step is to develop a plan. The fourth step is to implement the plan. The fifth step is to evaluate the results.

100

[illegible]

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Abstract



1. **Introduction**

[illegible]

100% 90% 80% 70% 60% 50% 40% 30% 20% 10% 0%

Figure 6

Age Group	Percentage of Respondents
18-24	85
25-34	75
35-44	65
45-54	55
55-64	45
65-74	35
75+	10

1000

Age Group	Total (%)	Male (%)	Female (%)	Unknown (%)
18-24	15	10	20	5
25-34	25	15	35	10
35-44	35	25	45	20
45-54	45	35	55	30
55-64	55	45	65	40
65+	65	55	75	50

[illegible]

TABLE 1

Mean scores on the 10-item scale for each stressor

Stressor	Mean score
1. Time pressure	3.2
2. Workload	3.1
3. Lack of resources	2.8
4. Lack of information	2.5
5. Lack of control	2.4
6. Lack of support	2.3
7. Lack of autonomy	2.2
8. Lack of recognition	2.1
9. Lack of feedback	2.0
10. Lack of participation	1.9

TABLE 2

Mean scores on the 10-item scale for each stressor

Stressor	Mean score
1. Time pressure	3.5
2. Workload	3.4
3. Lack of resources	3.1
4. Lack of information	2.8
5. Lack of control	2.7
6. Lack of support	2.6
7. Lack of autonomy	2.5
8. Lack of recognition	2.4
9. Lack of feedback	2.3
10. Lack of participation	2.2

TABLE 3

Mean scores on the 10-item scale for each stressor

Stressor	Mean score
1. Time pressure	3.3
2. Workload	3.2
3. Lack of resources	2.9
4. Lack of information	2.6
5. Lack of control	2.5
6. Lack of support	2.4
7. Lack of autonomy	2.3
8. Lack of recognition	2.2
9. Lack of feedback	2.1
10. Lack of participation	2.0

NOTE: The mean scores on the 10-item scale for each stressor are shown in the table. The mean scores on the 10-item scale for each stressor are shown in the table.

TABLE 4

Mean scores on the 10-item scale for each stressor

Stressor	Mean score
1. Time pressure	3.6
2. Workload	3.5
3. Lack of resources	3.2
4. Lack of information	2.9
5. Lack of control	2.8
6. Lack of support	2.7
7. Lack of autonomy	2.6
8. Lack of recognition	2.5
9. Lack of feedback	2.4
10. Lack of participation	2.3

NOTE: The mean scores on the 10-item scale for each stressor are shown in the table. The mean scores on the 10-item scale for each stressor are shown in the table.

Unless we understand that the manager's job is very complex, we will fall into the trap of assuming that management is nothing more than 'control' work. For control to be a common usage only when we know the important factors that affect the situation then we are able to understand what must be done.¹⁸

The top four perceived ICU stresses at RNH Hader are measured below in more detail, each of them affecting 10 spots above 2.4 on the three scale. Agreement with correlation coefficients demonstrates a clear but nevertheless positive relationship between RGN and RNH stress perception. The results offer some data on how an usual situation may be managed to improve the effectiveness of its process in the interests of patients.

As Bellamy¹⁹ so rightly says: 'First, it is to admit that a greater awareness of the problems encountered is the first step in improving the standards for intensive care staff and also, secondly, for the patients.'

Working alongside inexperienced staff rotated in the major three times in each shift 1 find that I am only concerned on the ICU at RNH Hader during the period and hope that this regular rotation is helping this major stress at RNH Hader. In the situation for carrying out this work it was noted that ICU nursing is rotated about 10 times a week. With the high turnover of staff during 1983 (40% RGNs and 50% RNHs) there had certainly been some building and maintaining morale was difficult.

The intensive care nursing staff has a function in a context that the control of staffing fluctuations does lead to an effectiveness in only needs the experienced team to learn to produce a unit that takes a maximum of two months to rotate this recruitment pattern at RNH Hader takes a maximum of two months to complete. The new members of staff should then have a lower level of competence. Fully aware of this the RGNs position to double back staff up to ease them into the specialty.

The following commitment was my input more clearly than before. However with the advent of Project 1983 and more recently the United Kingdom Central Council's Post Registration Education and Practice Project (PREPP), senior commitment and clear of our professional governing body may need to be more closely coordinated together than ever before.

The following is a proposed strategy that could be adopted and assigned to show its staffing levels allow increase of staff trained nurses to work for a minimum of 14 months preferably two years, on this specialty providing that they are happy to do so and that time is, by open to the staff eye. This would give a turn of ability that is well-dispersed, regional. Nurses within a recognized ICU qualification who have continuously worked on the intensive care unit for 12 months who show commitment and enjoy the work should have been his recorded on the longest computer and to attend training/education 'in a time of the year it would be rapid result of doing so, thus providing a pool of nurses with specialist skills to complete the turnover gap staff. Effect of the recent major disaster, that have taken place in the UK have resulted in 10% of the situation requiring the services of an intensive care unit.

The training staff on our intensive care unit that would be available at any time is a list that means that I can not plan for regular regular nurses on a rotating ICU.

Project's regular disaster was the second highest sector at RNH Hader has ranked itself at RNH Hader. The reason for this was varied. Heavy workload nursing in staff facility is based on a unit such as the first Jack Williams' experience from some really poor disaster who expect nurses to carry out multiple and often complex procedures under duress without adequate time for preparation or equipment or more important in the period.

Four of the top five most stressful things would be the highest sector for RGNs on both units. Although at RNH Hader of emergency care along with the constant on-going stress to accept the new staff on their work with ICU skills. It is at RGNs was hope to achieve what an RGN cannot do ICU nursing unit. It should be noted that only one RGN has an ICU qualification and he works at RNH Hader. However, as we at RNH Hader provide most of the clinical facilities which enable Queen Alexandra Hospital to continue to run ENB 125 clinical Intensive Care Nursing Course for RGNs, a strong case could be made for their qualification to be awarded. In 1983 only one nurse, who has been awarded to run on the 1983-84 course. Only one nurse nurse on the ICU at RNH Hader had an ICU qualification at the time of the survey.²⁰

Lack of communication ranked fourth at Hader has three several Communication is a



Fig. 7. One of two bed spaces on the reconfigured SCL in Skylab.

two-way pressure and can resolve each and all of our issues. Unfortunately that question should have been answered to be more specific. This would have enabled a more precise evaluation. Bussard was incorrect did take place, but for the new members of staff a new methodology had to be learnt. For example, crews like International Payload Program, Yerkesville, Exalted Monks, Monks, Yelkine, Begging and working in some just a few. No what was the problem in SCL (Bussard?) suggests that the lack of communication was due primarily to the constant shifting of equipment. Experienced people may not always fully appreciate how new members of staff feel and think. The high turnover of staff during 1989 did not improve the situation. Once again it was easier to get on and do a task than taking time to get an introduction to the hardware to be the whole when and where. This is especially true when busy and of course does nothing to improve the human skills or confidence.

How staff could communicate occurred—common like it is not my fault, it's the other

staff, where a procedure has not been performed or equipment gone wrong. This is something that we as carriers are all guilty of doing at times. By increasing the amount of staff meetings which were of an open forum style and involving all staff in them for the redistribution of the SCL (SCL) staff we had a method opportunity to foster the health spent on the new moved back in the early summer of 1988. Following further discussion with each member of the SCL nursing staff in Hester a series of "meetings" was organized. Goal setting was negotiated between the senior and new staff member development and progression with SCL was more clearly monitored. The orientation package provided a monitoring tool for goal setting in addition to staff needed with management in prior courses in training and working skills. In the SCL we have training and working in closed practice. This course helped to bring about all using faces, voices and experience approach to working on the unit. Having a continuous throughout of 1988



Fig 1. An intensive care patient receiving respiratory and renal support.

121 students kept the trained nursing staff and the consultants on their toes.

A series of regular Thursday lecture time slots were given by doctors supplementing the formal ward teaching. These were held during the handover period so that as many staff as possible could attend. Subjecting junior trainees to an evening lecture and not an evening discussion has to be made available for at least three days before the ward is busy. A very positive response resulted. These conferences lasted 75 to 90 minutes followed by a time for questions. The contents of these sessions needed to be reported as a typical feature due to the staff turnover and for the part time agency nurses. Of course, formal teaching is only part of the clinical learning process. Much learning takes place informally

through discussion, demonstration, theory and case and group meetings.

When a new member of staff goes to join the unit, a getting to know along with the consultants, personnel and existing staff was used to them. Most patients found this helpful. Informal visits were arranged where possible so as to reduce the fear of the unknown, thereby reducing stress and improving the immediate clinical results.

This concern of the top team produced RCM members at RMR Hazle in 1990 together with a suggestion of how some of these informal sessions might be done with and measured was the result of this research. Making requests knowledge, to trainee post-graduates to perform their work with understanding. To achieve this involves more time, both scarce and precious,

and ultimately a subject's experience for the level of the team.

Researchers in both hospitals felt that there could only be work related stress prevailing in their hospitals, created by letting off steam when required. This may be with colleagues, friends or family. There were no suggestions for providing professional counselling. This is an interesting point in mind of the American research suggested that this is essential to prevent burnout. Refused to not even provide this department clearly is carrying on-out of shape, possibly because staff would have to report not to get an appointment. This therefore precludes the element of confidentiality which research suggests is crucial.

EVALUATION

The choice of research method was largely dictated by the resources available or rather lack of them. The personal format and of being a single researcher as has suggested by a few meant that I was only able to conduct a small survey. This does however provide a snapshot of these units at the time the survey was conducted.

In using the questionnaire, as opposed to the interview method, I was able to conduct RYM Stuckness in the sample of individual case notes. This method was both comprehensive in time and breadth. It was however, difficult for me to be down of the questionnaire and I am grateful to Mr Don Davies for allowing me to look briefly on the work she carried out in the Portsmouth Central Mental Health Service in 1989.

This research has raised some important specific issues that cannot really be discussed or covered. Those of us in a job which states that we not our own work however properly, by overlooking the more so than it, of the design in with the setting.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank all the staff of both ICUs for their help and support in completing the questionnaire. Mr John Hall, Headman in the Department of Community Services, Highgate College of Technology, Portsmouth for his help and advice and the following for their support and encouragement: Stephen Coleman, Dr A. Yvonne Royal, Mrs. Constance, Jennifer

and David, A. R. H. in RSM, Hester (1989) and Superintendent Nursing Officer J. Bush, Q&A/MS, Division for water inspection.

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ROYAL NAVAL HOSPITAL, GREAT YARMOUTH

It has been brought to our attention by Surgeon-Captain R. W. Dawson Royal Navy, that the former Royal Naval Hospital, Great Yarmouth (now St Nicholas Hospital) which was the Royal Navy's main psychiatric unit during the Second World War and has continued in use as a psychiatric hospital under the NHS and now, apparently under threat of closure and subsequent demolition. Surgeon-Captain Dawson has been asked by the Great Yarmouth branch of the Royal Naval Association, of which he is President, to find out what he can about the background and history of the hospital.

Anyone with information which they feel might be helpful to Surgeon-Captain Dawson is requested to write to him at the following address:

Surgeon-Captain R. W. Dawson Royal Navy
Framch Road
W11 Rural
Weyford
Dorset
Salisbury NR34 6AR.

Trans-endoscopic balloon dilatation of benign oesophageal strictures: A prospective study as an out-patient procedure

W. P. Jones, A. J. Walker and M. Ryan

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Over an 18-month period 70 consecutive patients underwent 100 arthroscopies for the treatment of knee ligament injury. Structures by the same order from top to bottom are: procedures were performed on six patients under tourniquet control; One patient developed intra-articular degeneration from their initial visit; Six other complications were seen in the post-operative but the last 64 patients were managed by joint preservation. The majority (61%) of patients were undergoing normally and all patients except the eight listed met the procedure and consent to undergo for the clinical or physical (pre)operative R. and analysis was performed comparing knee function with conventional knee brace which is not produced in all ligament injury treatment to see that patients presented in a more knee sensitive condition whilst compared to brace and feel the potential of surgery for the ligament injury. This document of results are given.

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Europe developed paper, strawed in a cold wet climate in the early population (the earliest methods of strawed+the strawed most usually greater language with small size in many small strawed¹ and are now rather red² These strawed are produced strawed through the straw, strawed the

applied force through a horizontal surface, thereby changing the rate of perforation. Most animals therefore adopt passive strategies and some will use a vertical orientation.

Two microscope holders define both optical axes and a mutually sharpened diaphragm layer in the diaphragm forces applied on mutually directed fibers to have a low risk of perforation. This has the theoretical advantage of being a safe method¹ while being as effective as conventional lithotripsy.² We report a continuous series of 116 lithotomies in 70 patients treated by trans-urologic diaphragm lithotomies in an outpatient procedure and compared its efficiency, safety and cost effectiveness.

DOI: 10.1002/for

Over an 18-month period 78 consecutive patients with benign joint diseases were treated by extra-articular balloon dilatation. Thirty-eight patients were female and 40 male aged between 35–81 (mean 70 yrs). Under anaesthesia, needles (18–22 ga) under ultrasonographic guidance (24–100 m probe) for dilatation was performed under fluoroscopy; each inflated 2–3 sec, using a Bigloo 775 balloon catheter (RayMed Group). All patients showed improvement in the need for lower analgesics. Only the anterior joint space, the balloon was inflated with water to a pressure of 24–75 mmHg (mean 45 balloon yrs), and maintained inflated for a maximum duration of 10 seconds. Most patients the patients were allowed to

His degree is a surgical certificate and Mr. Rao, is a consultant surgeon at Kanchi District Hospital. Surgeon Subramaniam Chinnaiyan, W.B.S. is currently associated to the Department of Vascular Surgery, Kanchi District Hospital.

death and were all discharged home the same day.

RESULTS

Fourty-seven patients (57%) underwent a single balloon dilatation (33M (56.4%) 11F%) required two dilatations and 15 patients (23%) required more than three dilatations in various operating rooms. All patients tolerated the procedure well and had immediate symptomatic relief. One patient developed respiratory distress from dent colitis which was easily reversed by the intravenous administration of a narcotic analgesic. There were no other complications associated with the procedure.

A review of the outcomes of the first 50 patients was undertaken by a postal questionnaire. This revealed that five patients had died of unrelated causes. Of the survivors, 41 (82%) patients indicated that their ability to tolerate food had improved so markedly that they did not request further dilatation when offered this. Of the four patients having problems all had repeated and are undergoing further dilatations. Only one patient was unhappy with the procedure describing it as lengthy and unpleasant. The other 44 were happy to undergo further dilatation should it prove necessary.

COST ANALYSIS

A cost analysis was performed comparing the form of treatment ie. non-instrumental bougienage which is often performed in out hospitals. Current total hospitalization ie. performed in our hospital involves the use of modern fibre Prostima or Maroney type mercury-weighted dilators. A gross saving of 41/84 (52 per cent) was found in patients treated by balloon dilatation (Table 1).

1). This includes both fixed costs (staff, endoscopy equipment, etc.) and variable costs (drugs, extra local anaesthesia, oxygen etc). Bougienage patients all had a general anaesthetic, a post-dilatation chest X-ray and had on average a 2.5 bed day occupancy rate. 90 patients having balloon dilatation were treated in out patients.

DISCUSSION

Firstly, again, endoscopic dilatation of benign oesophageal strictures was first introduced in the early 1930s and has since gained widespread acceptance as the treatment of choice in the management of these conditions. Balloon dilatation of benign peptic strictures has to admit passed fibres and only one pilot study to date¹ has compared its efficacy and safety with conventional bougienage. This study suggested that balloon dilatation is as effective as conventional bougienage in the relief of symptoms but may also be a safer technique. However, no study has yet addressed the comparative question of the cost-effectiveness of both techniques.

This study suggests that oesophageal balloon dilatation of benign peptic strictures is a safe and well tolerated procedure. These results also suggest that it is effective in the relief of symptoms and that follow up treatment rates compare favourably with other forms of bougienage. It can be performed as an out patient and is cost effective when compared with conventional bougienage.

In conclusion, oesophageal balloon dilatation for the treatment of benign peptic strictures is an effective and proven method of managing a common condition in the elderly population. The risks and costs associated with general anaesthesia and

Table 1. Fixed and variable costs of balloon dilatation versus bougienage under general anaesthesia in one institution.

Balloon dilatation	Per patient	100 cases per year
Variable costs	£81.17	£8117.00
Fixed costs	£127.68	£12768.00
	£208.85	£20585.00
Bougienage	Per patient	100 cases per year
Variable costs	£188.28	£18828.00
Fixed costs	£240.66	£24066.00
	£428.94	£42894.00

Gross saving of £208.00 per patient or £208.00 per 100 cases.

X-ray angiography. We observed that the majority of patients who successfully managed the one dilatation only should further dilatation be necessary due to generally well-colonized by polyps. Balloon dilatation is not efficient when compared with other methods of long-term surveillance and we therefore recommend that trans-endoscopic balloon dilatation is the treatment of choice for large cardiovascular polypoid structure in this patient population.

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The role of pulmonary angiography in the investigation of suspected pulmonary embolism

P. J. Buxton

INTRODUCTION

The accurate diagnosis of pulmonary embolism (PE) is important since there is an appreciable morbidity associated with untreated deep vein thromboses (DVT) and the failure to treat an established PE may also have grave consequences. A common clinical presentation and pathogenesis of a suspected acute venous thrombosis, although not a significant number of cases the result is asymptomatic and no firm conclusion can be drawn on the presence or absence of a PE. Two patients with asymptomatic VTE events are presented in which pulmonary angiography was helpful in determining the correct diagnosis.

METHODS OF INVESTIGATING SUSPECTED PULMONARY EMBOLUS

A suspected pulmonary embolism is first detected usually with a tender, red, swollen and perhaps warm. Purpura is present by spreading 100 MBq of 99m Tc labelled albumin macrophages into a peripheral vein. Vascular flow is assessed using the indicator gas Krypton, which has a very short half-life. A pleural embolus produces a pattern of low flow ventilation and decreased perfusion in the area where the apparatus is aspirated. pulmonary angiography may be used to establish a definite diagnosis.

Pulmonary angiography is performed with a combination of fluoroscopy and injected film.

The patient should have continuous ECG monitoring and their chest in the flatter, to minimise the venous angle posterior through the catheter. Under local anaesthesia a catheter is inserted into the superficial femoral vein and advanced to the inferior vena cava. Contrast is injected to check that the PNA is patent, perfusing from the inferior vena cava. The catheter is then advanced to the lower and superior through the innominate vein. The right ventricular end of the



Fig. 1. Fluoroscopic image of the labelled pulmonary artery, showing right upper lobe, in RPO (RPO = Right Posterior Oblique).

Stephen L. Cooper, Lecturer in Medicine is currently appointed to the Department of Respiratory Health, Guyton General Hospital.



V

RPO

Fig. 1. Long, vermiform appendix (top) and base of lung (bottom) showing vermiform.



Fig. 2. Right pulmonary artery (top) and base of lung (bottom) showing vermiform appendix.

while pressure is maintained and the procedure is abandoned if this exceeds 30 mmHg. Separate incisions are then made into the left and right pulmonary arteries and vessels injected into each segmental artery that appear suspicious. Forbidable situation is found in those cases which have been shown to be abnormal on VQ scanning. The procedure is discontinued if there are major vessel displacement and is relatively risk free.

CASE REPORTS

Case 1

A 44-year old man with a history of recurrent polychondritis presented with chest pain. A VQ scan showed a small area of definite loss of perfusion in the right upper lobe with normal ventilation (Figs 1a and 2b). The appearance was considered to be that of a wedging PE. The diagnosis was not considered to be sufficiently certain, however, to commence anticoagulant therapy and a pulmonary angiogram was performed for confirmation.

Specimens of vessels from the right pulmonary



Fig. 3. Right pulmonary artery (top) and base of lung (bottom) showing polychondritis, characterized by thickening of a part of artery (arrowhead).



Fig. 4 Selective right ventricle (RV) angiogram showing a filling defect in the right upper lobe artery (arrow).

artery showed a defect in peripheral vessel filling in the right upper lobe (Fig. 4) and had filling of an upper lobe artery (Fig. 5), but no intraluminal filling defects were seen. The end of the defect corresponded to the VQ scan abnormality and showed no tapering of the right upper lobe artery was therefore performed. This showed evidence within the artery which had delayed filling on the flank exposure (Fig. 6). The patient was unresponsive and made a satisfactory recovery.

Case 2

A 49-year-old man presented to casualty complaining of chest pain, which he described as being similar to that which he had experienced two years previously when a PE had been diagnosed on VQ scan. The possibility of a further PE was considered and a VQ scan was performed. This showed a large loss of perfusion in the left upper lobe with normal ventilation (Figs 3a and 3b). The appearance was considered to be equivocal and in view of his previous history an angiogram was performed.

Angiograms were made run for right and left pulmonary arteries (Fig. 4). The intraluminal filling defects were seen but was there any abnormality of peripheral vessel filling. There was therefore no evidence of a PE and the



Fig. 5 Selective right ventricle (RV) angiogram showing normal filling of the right upper lobe artery (arrow).



Fig. 6 Selective right ventricle (RV) angiogram showing a filling defect in the right upper lobe artery (arrow).

patient was discharged on aspirin (325 mg) following angiogram. He had no further episodes of pain.

DISCUSSION

The investigation of patients with a suspected PE who find an equivocal VQ scan is controversial. Previous to this study, a study from the

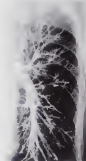


Fig 1 Left pulmonary artery angiogram of contrast showing normal profile of a three-lobed left lung artery system.

in the United States where there is a greater willingness to proceed to angiography in such world wars.¹ Although pulmonary angiography is generally a safe procedure it would be inappropriate to subject all patients with an abnormal WQ scan to such an invasive procedure.

The cases presented illustrate that pulmonary angiography can, in certain circumstances, give very useful additional information which allows curves considered to be unexplained to be taken into the main pulmonary arteries. However, they fail to show the embolus and in these cases a WQ scan may detect the topographical site of the appropriate artery for selective catheterisation. Pulmonary angiography and WQ scanning are therefore complementary tests.

The risks and benefits of angiography should be weighed against the risks of inappropriate anticoagulation therapy and it cases where the WQ scan is equivocal.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I wish to thank Prof D M Ashby for his help in the preparation of this paper.

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Fair Dinkum Way-out Woop-Woop: the Sydney to Darwin Motor Safari 1990. Part 1

P. H. Hardy

INTRODUCTION

Being on exchange duties with the Royal Australian Navy provides many opportunities. One such opportunity is the Australian Safari a motorcade and car race between Sydney and Darwin which travels some 4,500 km through the rugged Australian Outback over an eight day period.

Through my exchange duties I was fortunate to become involved with the Safari for the 1989 race and was delighted to be asked to take over the organisation and running of the medical aspects of the event at the Maritime Club Medical Officers 1990.

This article covers various aspects of the background to the preparation and conduct of the 1990 Safari and provides an overview of some of the medical challenges experienced by the seven 1990 crew of the Journal. I shall provide a little more flavour for the event by covering an average day's activities and those particularly noteworthy events encountered as we road across Australia.

THE AUSTRALIAN SAHI

The Safari is classified as a road race with the international minimum regulatory burden as a trial. As such it has many similarities to the Paris-Dakar rally. However, with the vast distances being so large that the whole of

Europe could fit within its start to finish circle of Ireland, Norway and Greece, the Sydney to Darwin Safari has the additional advantage that no international boundaries need be crossed, the whole of the event being run on the continent.

Without doubt, the greatest attraction for the international field is the car itself. Firstly, we would be crossing some of Australia's most gruelling but beautiful outback. In the mid 1980s, the rolling sand-pans of the Red Centre would be a challenge as would the flat open expanses of the Topend Desert. There would be vast stretches too where wet shallow or deep rivers or swamps. Whilst the medical team would provide additional support during the worst conditions, the most severe stress and fatigue of the participants would be a result of considerable morning hours for the competition.

There there would be the chance, initially it would be sold with some sight from the left, Sydney on the water to head for the Blue Mountains, then southwards to the hot and hazy city of tropical Darwin. All these rapid changes would be experienced over the last few weeks parked right down of the road.

Each day the race is split into a number of competitive and transport sections. Run through deep outback 'red' routes (by clock, a competitive section may be 3-10 km long. We would average approximately 800 km of travel per day at speeds of up to 140 km/hr. The meeting Darwin, some 4,500 km of road racing would have been experienced.

As the rally passes through some of the most remote parts of Australia, the overnight stops

Sergeant Lieutenant Commander Hardy is currently assigned to HMAS Flinders on exchange duties with the Royal Australian Navy.

With 1000 ft. flying time, the helicopter, with its fuel and cargo tanks at a longer and more optimum centre, when compared to the Italian support vehicles which travel a shorter direct route between night drops. This enables the support crews to pitch camp before the first emergency arrival on completion of the day's work. The main support or reinforcement craft might be first out at 10000 ft. With 1000 ft. more time spent manoeuvring, maintaining steady heights and of course incident rate are some of the services considered from under cover as far from the risk of attack. Our mission took all of our fuel supplies but such coverage conforms to the water and drinking food and left behind in Sydney. With some 750-800 personal medical supplies, the accommodation is not occupied. A variable area land landing zone meaning when drop-deployed and in the darkness of night morning yield for an adversary to its own night?

The event generates a great team spirit. Even when raining, there remains a good deal of confidence in comparison with the medical assistance to other vehicles broken down with mechanical failure, bogged in mud or forced to land. The spirit of the land is equally as close to each other's support as during combat operations are interrupted on vehicles which have failed to withstand the rigours of the rugged terrain.

The rapid-response team spirit is turned over into the medical support of the heliport, with the chance to develop and refine those clinical skills not to be found on hospital, but to develop the confidence of a ship, reconnaissance and first aid care of a patient when medical help is well over the horizon, the need to make a clinical decision without laboratory support, to triage and organize medical evacuation of the injured, the team with the commitment/faith required regarding the injured. With such support leading to the many laboratories from population centres, our emergency deployed medical care developed into a General Practice on each emergency camp. However, before any of this there is the preparation for the event itself.

PREPARATION AND MEDICAL SUPPORT

In preparing the medical event for the event a number of aspects must be considered. Firstly vehicles or helicopter ambulances and ranges. Then there is the medical unit facility at each night's deployment, their staff movement and local pharmaceutical and other equipment.

Helicopter

This is an expensive, it is for the organizers of the Salvo to sponsor. However, it is also a vital one for with the landing vehicles, working speeds at rates of 160 knots there is no other realistic way of keeping pace with the time ratios. In order to obtain the best value for money from the helicopter, it is also seen as a major safety platform for this work. There is moreover a advantage. The organizers profit by separating two services from one experienced unit; the value-conscious is happy to be left the opportunity of keeping up with the latest which is often where much of the emergency action takes place. The doctor is used to land is placed as he has usually several cases of the heliport in the heliport at times the most valuable at high speed and low level across the theatre and that competence are needed in the knowledge that on the day a living doctor is even on call to hospital in a day for help.

When medical services or a major emergency is threatened to the helicopter. Dependence upon the casualty conditions, the time required and equipment to be dropped from the aircraft and a number of other factors. The casualty is then evacuated with a medical officer or surgeon. While the helicopter can land adjacent to the beach to deliver the injured, it can only carry at 170 knots. In addition, an additional 1000 ft. The crewmen then problems the Salvo made to call upon a fixed wing plane. These additional assets are primarily used as flying rules when needed, working at 1-800 ft. over the fully a planned route. However, when needed this can drop down into a deployment, landing strip (all known) two days for the use of the Flying Doctor Service or simply as a matter of fact using the support of the personnel to collect a patient who has been killed out of the sea, the helicopter. With the faster crossing speed and longer endurance of the fixed wing aircraft, a three-hour response time from New Zealand, a major health facilities was not unusual in 1980.

Ambulance

This is a four wheel-drive van, specially prepared and modified for the event. It is without the support of the event, the experience has been highlighted and strengthened and camp groups, land. Two engines are connected by the communications and of course the communication eventually built on the base as to be found on the front. Medically it has been equipped

with two standard oxygen supplies, a small refrigerator and boxes of medical kit (eg. dress dressings, resuscitators, splinters, splints, I.V. fluids etc).



Fig. 1 The ambulance with the radio ambulance.

The tasking of the ambulance throughout the day is that of an air-aid mobile medical centre. Being there is not left to go well over the day's course, before the first camp site leaves camp on two legs. As early as possible and for the driver that fortunately has some reflexes, his safety harness is secure and the doors and windows of the vehicle are openable. Over the day's working in the way, the ambulance is able to spray out the first aid kit giving it with the competitors. Traveling at speeds approaching those of the road vehicles, the ambulance covers the track at their times. In this way medical care is provided for the first half of the Indian vehicles.



Fig. 2 A typical hot cross in the car. The car is being driven by P.D. C. (C. D. Hardy from 1980) (P.D. Hardy's company).

'Sweep' vehicles

These are so-called as they are the less official vehicles through the race's course. They are large but wheel drive Toyota Landcruisers and as in motor first aid points as well as carrying a variety of first aid supplies and medical stores for the latter half of the race. Although they carry a driver, these 'sweep' vehicles do not pick up injuries and care for the injured medical. Instead they are the competitors are as the race progresses the sweep vehicles and no following vehicles are made available as possible slow pace through the course and in the dark. Often the two sweepers, not just one the night camp and 40-60 miles make for a long day after a 24-30 hour.

With all official vehicles carrying radio and many of the competitors also being on the air, medical services are rapidly made to make for medical assistance throughout the field, the course detector being up several times at taking medical first aid medical aid. Towards the end of the day's racing, the leading and trailing vehicles can be separated by up to 100 km which, reasonably means that medical services are fairly spread in places, however the telephone, ambulance and two sweep vehicles provided satisfactory medical service in 1980.

Medical tent

This is the last level of medical care provided by the Indian. Managing mainly A and B type requires both a few containers of (General Frasco) products for the two vehicles and for the Indian at each of the night stops which are often in the middle of nowhere. By the time the competitors, their medical assistance, first aid, resuscitators, splints, bandages, splints, first aid and medical stores are needed, the medical tent is available for some 400 people. Working in the light, repairing tires on worn ground and even general car maintenance by the light of a single torch can be hazardous and the injuries which present are often a direct consequence of the competition medical working conditions.

Unfortunately, we do not carry X-ray facilities and medical assistance is basic. However, the tent equipment is highly maintained in some way, the Indian and the three drive, the course would pass within 10 km of a garage type hospital where equipment could be borrowed. As a alternative would be to take the nearest main road in the health facility, within walking distance of the night's support. This might mean a few hours drive, there and a few last drive back vehicles

Table 1 The Sydney to Gairloch Motor Safari 1990—Daily Stages

Sat 18 August	Sydney—Morgan (via Blue Mountains)
Sun 19 August	Sydney—Gairloch (via Broken Hill)
Mon 20 August	Adelaide—Morgan (via Adelaide Heights)
Tue 21 August	Morgan—Murray (via Coonambie etc)
Wed 22 August	Murray—Agnes Peak (via Kalbarri)
Thur 23 August	Agnes Peak—Alice Springs (via Macdonnell Ranges)
Fri 24 August	Alice Springs—Tennant Creek (via Dead's Heart etc)
Sat 25 August	Tennant Creek—Katherine (via Tennant Downs)
Sun 26 August	Katherine—Gairloch (via Daly River)

additional risk of missing the start line following day if it is all trouble, patients would wait for Alice Springs and Darwin to be reached.

Staffing

As Chief Medical Officer, it is a responsibility for nursing staff. All support personnel offer their services in a voluntary basis. However, with the opportunity of exploring the Australian Outback, few people need much in the way of encouragement to commit themselves to the road. Hence, the four doctors, four nurses and two physiotherapists for the 1990 event, were soon identified. Having assessed that the helicopter, ambulance and camp vehicles are up to the required medical task, the final responsibility is the medical input and doctor's back up.

Medical equipment

Each doctor takes with him or her a range of a backpack of medical equipment. Supplying the doctors with their packs before the event permits each medical officer to add or subtract specific items in case for individual pack, events. The items are provided for in the form of simple analgesics and dressings prior to arrival; equipment such as sphygmomanometers, and ophthalmoscopes. Most eye tests medical conditions are covered by the inclusion of antibiotics and oxygen administration equipment. UV light, antibiotics, etc. A full range of medications is obtained through approving the pharmaceutical industry who are more than happy to see their products promoted in this international event by making products demonstrate of awarded drugs supplied from their marketing managers. In addition, each vehicle carries further medical supplies (eg. bandages and splints). These items provide complete coverage for an 8000 km but realistically have made use by additional for the doctors placed in a long-distance desert in vehicles or open to desert. The medical policy, which works well

is in making with first aid and sick rapid evaluation. Instead, that policy has been adopted and developed for the 1990 event, which planners to almost an even larger entry. As such, events planning already include two helicopters and two on-hold ambulances.

SIGNIFICANT MEDICAL INJURIES

A review of the injuries sustained in 750 km of road across a 5500 km of Outback Australia over some months over the Safari event is also shown that the current international Safari regulations regarding safety equipment is more strict and adequately enforced. In the 1980 event, we sustained only 11 split limbs, most on off-road, one accident involved motorcyclists. The only vehicle, injured occurred on a car carrying some group supporters which rolled whilst following the Safari route. We have fortunate in 1990 to have the past six years while the event has been running, there has been at least one injury covering quadriceps and one on a leg. The year significant medical diagnosis were:

1. Two motorcycle riders who were evaded and as reported injuries for permanent and ongoing care. Both their names are named involved vehicles after falling from their machines at speed. Both made no medical recovery.
2. Three casualties requiring overnight observation in regional medical centres for head injury and soft tissue facial injuries. They were able to subsequently return the road as outpatients. The comparative wear and tear of vehicles in all vehicles on Safari should be considered in two of them as patients were on the people vehicle which rolled over.
3. Three casualties who were treated by Safari medical officers but using the facilities of the local Royal Flying Doctor Service. Two required 5 day admissions for a Colles's fracture and a delirious

sheltered respectively. One exposed the subject of facial hyperaemia under an opaque conditions and good light.

- d. Lastly, these riders who were treated as novices or under the conditions of the medical test. There were a local injury, a wide based 'herculean clavus' joint and a fractured metacarpal. Further follow up of these injuries was performed as time was permitted.

Perhaps the most perception of significant medical problems occurred in the conditions of the Sydney body as approximately half of the existing competitors failed to reach Christ Church so the development of mechanical devices.

Of course there was a variety of ailments and many medical problems related on our trip to Durban. An upper respiratory tract infection prevailed with an ensuing viral contribution as supplies of paracetamol dwindled and because was found an epidemic with a natural virus feature. The request for a live second opinion on a mechanical problem for many months was also a financial (decreasing) contribution.

Consequently has been given to the Australian Medical Society's concentration on the medical perspective and some of the support remained in 1990. The concluding article in the next journal will review an average day's interview and some personal memories from the 1990 event.

Queen Alexandra's Royal Naval Nursing Service

Kathleen Harland MA

This book was commissioned to be written by Kathleen Harland for the QARNNS Centenary celebrations in 1994. The high cost of publishing and corresponding lack of funds put the project into abeyance until it was brought to the attention of the Editorial Committee of the Journal of the Royal Naval Medical Society. Only through the financial backing of the JRMNS (who have acted as publishers, but it being possible to print the book.

Miss Harland has written a comprehensive account of the history of QARNNS from their inception in 1844 up until 1994. It is a book which combines history, general interest and some anecdote in its text. It is read like the entries the naval cadetship to Remembrance, attached to the Royal Navy, the collection pages which some QARNNS Officers served in WWI and described the trials of service during

the Korean War and finally the effect of the Falklands War. The book will be of interest to historians in particular the comprehensive tables at the back of the book which cover a directory of subjects including Honours and Awards and Establishments where QARNNS Officers have served. A wide selection of photographs provide context and further interest for those people who may prefer print to Internet through the net.

The book costs £12.00 plus postage. For those who run collect direct from the Office of Surgeon Commodore (NMT) the cost will be £1.50. To order a copy of the book you are requested to complete the form below and send to: INTC Office of Surgeon Commodore (NMT) Maritime Health Institute, of Naval Medicine, Aberdeen, Gougeon, House P312 324.

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Increase in subscription rates

In view of continuing increases in printing and postal costs, and, in addition, the increases in interest rates, the Editorial Committee has been advised by the printers that an increase in subscription is necessary to maintain the continued good health of the Journal Fund. It has therefore reluctantly been decided to increase the annual subscription from the present £1.00 a year to £12.00 a year with effect from 1 January 1992. This measure will unfortunately affect subscribers who currently pay for reduced subscriptions of £1.00, as has however been agreed that those subscribers who qualify both on age and loyalty to the Journal after 1 January 1992 shall be entitled to a reduced subscription of £5.00 a year.

Subscribers are requested to complete the attached proforma and return it to the Journal Office, if possible, by the end of October 1991.

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Please pay Lloyds Bank plc 20 High Street, Gosport, Hants PO12 1DN, BSB 20-55-55, for the credit of the JOURNAL OF THE ROYAL NAVAL MEDICAL SERVICE (Account Number 8022700) the sum of £12.00 (twelve pounds) commencing on 1 January 1992 and thereafter on 1 January each year until further notice in writing, and debit my account accordingly.

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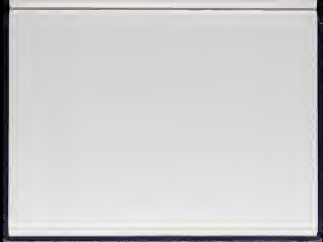
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The Cruel Field

R M C McNeill Lowe

Retired colonel and surgeon, originally published in the Royal Green Jacket Magazine 

As a Royal Navy General Practitioner in Gibraltar I worked with the Navy for four months and with the Army for about a year apart from Forces Headquarters and the Cavalry Regiment. The bulk of my work was with the medical but also. Consequently I had the always stimulating, usually surprising, often exhilarating, occasionally shocking privilege of being the Royal Naval Hospital Medical Officer to the 3rd Battalion the Royal Green Jackets (1 RGRJ), one of the more unusual units that a doctor in HM Forces in the 1960s might not encounter. This short article is to record some of the experiences of the hospital that I entered and which will not forget.

I arrived on 15 January 1960 after a flightless night and thought: 'Well, Royal Marines—the medical has come. Facing a hole like David Livingstone, there have left us he plunged into the unknown. I set off for the General Medical Centre to become General Medical Officer in a strange world—the British Army.

As I entered my Medical Centre which unfortunately did not resemble the Royal Clinic—it was built in 1949 for a temporary facility—and was so hot and smouldering, just—I was greeted with a smart salute and cup of coffee by the 3 RGRJ Medical Sergeant. It was happening in front of a hole, more relaxed as if it was about the back of the head which appeared to resemble the Mammal Hall for the London Borough of Brent. Caring each person as by

pressing a bell a practice, which although not exactly personal to the patient is almost preserving for the doctor. I was immediately impressed by the approach of smart soldiers marching into my office and talking—and then just because I was in the General Surgery as a small army officers get their treatment? However—as good as I began to feel a little more confident in finding the first, I would be presented with a new unknown, for example, to the anxious enquiry: 'What are you feeling?' the night might be 'Good night' (Good night being a common 3 RGR term which is added to the present word to completely reverse the meaning). I was also a little inclined to discover that having asked a Battalion to show his presence in order to examine his illness, I would back again to bring some notes to find him standing naked from the waist down. Another delightful light (3 RGR was) as it was no understatement to find that I have certainly not appeared in November, the war periods are well organized and the Medical Sergeant and Regimental Medical Assistant most helpful. After the common lot of people on war periods I then commenced the familiar clinic and met the RGRJ supporters with the all important women and children who in turn were welcoming and obviously slightly concerned that yet again another Royal War of doctor had been assigned to them.

As the day went on I continued my work with the General Clinic. At about noon I had to leave what remained the attack of command and how the first day I ultimately succeeded in an unusual kind way into the surgery. I heard for the first time about the the phrase 'dressing' that they were OK. I Company RGRJ TQM5 Adjutant CSM.

As the day went on, Sergeant Lowe and I continued the Medical Clinic, which was the Medical Officer to the 3rd Battalion, Royal Green Jackets as Cavalry Regiment, originally published in Forces Navy's RAG Hospital, Britain.

The Editor will welcome articles and professional commentary based upon the experiences of RMAHS personnel during all phases of the preparation for and execution of the medical support tasks encountered by the Gulf War.

Notes

Copies of the *Scientific Journal of the Royal Naval Medical Service* Volume 1 Number 1, which was produced for the journal's 100th Anniversary are still available free on request from the Editorial Secretary.

New fighting team heads Royal Naval Reserve Medical Branch

Surgeon Captain James White has offered Surgeon Captain Roger Berry as Captain Medical Training (Course). Following the completion of the RNR-command structure in 1988 there are now five reserve Commanders and six RNR Captains. Captain Medical Training (Reserve) is in medical, dental, and general responsibilities for war like training of medical and dental officers (QAQMNR), nursing colleges and RNR Medical Branch and QAQMNR (ships). His inputs as Commander (Specialists, Personnel and Support).

James White was born in Kent and educated at Winchester College and the London Hospital Medical College, where he was an R.N. Cadet. On qualifying in 1967 he was appointed as RNR Single. He remained in MRD until 1972, becoming O and O Specialist in RNR Medical but was then appointed in 1976 as a single as a staff officer in medical and diving officer in the Gulf. He studied First Aid in First Aid, receiving Surgeon, Hong Kong, the Middle East, the Middle East, the Royal Air Force, the Middle East, and participating in the sea and air with Ireland, as well as qualifying as a leader with the Royal Air Force. He was awarded his short service commission in 1973 and joined Royal Naval Reserve where he became Principal Medical Officer in 1978 and was promoted Surgeon Commander. He was awarded the United Service Medal (Honorary) in 1980 for service on multiple Germanic ports. Most recently he has been our man in Hong Kong with multiple results in the service in 1985. From 1985 to 1988 he has been a general practitioner in London and London (1985-1988) having been unsuccessful Liberal candidate for parliamentary seats in Harlow and Arundel and for the European parli-

mentary seat for West Sussex on several occasions. He was a very successful Mayor of Littlehampton in 1989-90. A police surgeon in Littlehampton from 1982. He is also Arts Surgeon for West Sussex on the St John Ambulance Brigade and was admitted as a Serving Member of the Order of St John in 1988. He was the first Principal Medical Officer (Reserve) to serve in the rank of Surgeon Captain (MRD) appointed in 1988 and was promoted Surgeon Captain RNR in October 1989. He received Surgeon Captain Berry as Captain Medical Training (Reserve) in April 1990.

Surgeon Commander Alan Worsworth who offered James White as FRD (Reserve), is a complete general surgeon at Witherspoon Hospital, Clevedon and St. George's Hospital, Rugby. Trained at St. George's Hospital Medical School he joined the RNR in 1967. He served with the Royal Marines Reserve, and the Special Boat Squadron (Reserve) and won his para-chute wings in 1969. He was appointed SMO in the RNR, Concomitant Training Centre, Birmingham, in 1979. This was because 1985 (1987) in 1981 and he was promoted Surgeon Commander. Recall to RN service as consultant surgeon included two recalls to Malaysia, Hong Kong (where he was awarded the Queen Service Medal (Honorary Award)) as well as multiple recalls to the Field Support Team, British Forces Malaya (RAF) Hospital Corps and to RNR. Following two successful training periods with JCB International Hospital, BMAA (TV) at Singapore, Camp Chatter he was commanding officer of the RNR medical team embedded in the R.F.'s for President for the amphibious assault MLDEN 10 and corresponding officer for the first over all RNR, usually a civilian (ship) with

were involved land at Sasebo Camp in May 1990.

Surgeon Captain Roger Berry has been promoted into L100 (the senior officers who are fully trained and can be recalled as required). The only RNM officer ever to serve as medical

submarine—and to qualify as a watchkeeping officer—has continued to be employed by CDSAC NANTHOM as DISTANT for the reason that about 70 per cent of submarine accidents are dental cases.

(continued)

100

SERVICE NEWS

ROYAL NAVAL MEDICAL AND DENTAL OFFICERS

APPOINTMENTS AND PROMOTIONS

To Surgeon Rear Admiral
and appointed Surgeon Rear Admiral
(International Medical Services)
5 March 1991
A. L. Revell CBE

To Surgeon Commander and appointed
Director of Naval Services
19 February 1991
J. M. Bailey CBE

As Quoniam Honorary Surgeon
8 March 1991
Surgeon Captain M. J. Wilson

As Assistant Director
Naval Dental Services
2 April 1991

Surgeon Captain (Rtd) R. J. Grant

As Command (Medical) Officer
in COMNAVSEA
28 August 1991

Surgeon Captain D. M. Crane

As Command (Dental) Surgeon
in COMNAVSEA
21 April 1990

Surgeon Captain (Rtd) R. S. Huxley

As Commanding Officer at St Johns Maritime
in MEDSEA
5 March 1991

Surgeon Captain A. P. Steele-Pedley

As Advisor to General Practice
in MEDSEA
8 September 1990

As Surgeon Captain R. D. Orr

As Advisor to G. L. Williams
in MEDSEA
8 May 1990

Surgeon-Commander C. N. Butler

To Surgeon Lieutenant
P. D. Edwards J. G. Stacey

To Surgeon Lieutenant (Rtd)
J. P. McHugh R. Buchanan

HIGHER QUALIFICATIONS

Surgeon Commander R. J. Adams—MD
Surgeon Lieutenant Commander
N. C. G. Roberts—AFRC
Surgeon Lieutenant Commander
P. J. Thomas—AFRC

It has been brought to the Editor's attention that
Surgeon Lieutenant Commander M. S. Wright has been
elected a Fellow of the Royal Sociological Society.

CONSULTANT ALIEN SPECIALISTS AND SPECIALISTS

The following professional references are
all interested

Consultants

Invited to:

Surgeon Commander C. G. Johnson—Oct 1990

General Practitioner

Surgeon Commander M. L. Cowley—Oct 1990

Surgeon Lieutenant Commander M. M. Parole
has completed GPST

NEW ENTRIES

Surgeon Lieutenant (Rtd) R. C. Lamb

PLACEMENT EMERGENCY LINE

Supplies Commander Commander D P Churchdale
 Surgeon Commander Commander D A W. W.

RETIREMENTS

Surgeon Captain R C Telford
 Surgeon Captain D P V Brough
 Surgeon Commander A C Chalmers
 Surgeon Lieutenant Commander D J Brodie
 Surgeon Lieutenant D R B. Paine

MEDICAL SERVICES**QUEEN'S HOSPITAL DUMFRIES 1991**

deputy Group Medical
 Medical Technicians L. Smith

PROFESSIONS

To Nursing Staff Association
 P O Box 447 1991 Dumfries

Particular Selection for Promotion

11-12-1991 1991/1991

To Commander
 D Marshall

To Lieutenant Commander
 P O Newcom, A. Macgregor
 O MacV. S. Baker, B. S. Stewart
 A. Hughes

Particular Selection for Promotion

11-12-1991 1991/1991

To General Officer (G.O.)
 B. R. Taylor

To General Officer (G.O.)
 A. R. Paine

HIGHER QUALIFICATIONS

1991/1991 1991/1991 1991/1991 1991/1991

RETIREMENTS

Commander M. S. Brown CBE
 Lieutenant Commander J. Smith
 Lieutenant Commander B. Taylor

The new Head of Medical Services Branch is Commander
 D. P. Smith, formerly Officer in Charge of the
 Royal Naval Medical Staff School



Police Officer Medical Services D. Paine (left) and
 Staff Lieutenant (R.N.) P. Churchdale (right) are both of
 Naval Medical Services. In 1991, the medical services of
 the R.N. Medical Services were re-organized, and the
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1991/1991 1991/1991 1991/1991 1991/1991
 Biography: 1991/1991 1991/1991 1991/1991 1991/1991
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JOURNAL of the ROYAL NAVAL MEDICAL SERVICE

(The Editors of Definitio do not accept responsibility for the contents on this or any other page)

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Editorial

For Better or for Worse

Since 1955 the manner in which medicine is practised within the Royal Navy has changed dramatically. Many who were part of the service in the 1950s and 60s would, if they returned, hardly recognise it as the same service they knew. Medical Officers in all capacities have exceptional workloads, through general practice to hospital deployment, often daily to achieve post graduate qualifications, and to achieve professional recognition by their respective Colleges. Career progression is paramount. No longer is full-day working the norm and no longer is the service a refuge for those who might be, found a difficult to manage up to the professional standards in the then recently created National Health Service.

Indeed, the stakes and pressures was the period when due to the needs and demands of medicine such as Captain Peter Adcock for James Watt, the Royal Naval Medical Service achieved recognition at the apex of our medical peers. Consultants were recognised as specialists by the Colleges and were remunerated being of equal standing with those in civilian practice. The standard of primary and secondary care and progression and occupational medicine practised within the Royal Navy was regarded as if not better, at least as good as that in the NHS. Recruitment was plentiful and the Royal Navy reaped the benefits.

Times have not been so rosy because of the service no longer provides. Members of the Naval Hospital at HMS and Chatham, Devon and Portsmouth, are almost beyond that of even our most senior Medical Officers. This contrasts with members. Even as this is published, the Royal Naval Hospital at Plymouth is under attack of closure and manpower and material resources are being sought across the board. The Royal Naval Medical Service is taking on the

shape—some would say more than its fair share—of the vast impact of the Government Policy measures Options for Change.

During the time of passionate medical support to the Royal Navy has been forgotten in the minds of Government Ministers for the last decade. We say so repeatedly through in print, but not the last time demanded in war to support the work of the service. In the last six years we have fought two major wars, one in the South Atlantic and the other in the Gulf and yet the rate and character of change continued. Our cause is hampered by the unrelenting low morale figures contained in both civilian and naval publications in the past, ignoring and obscuring the strengths of the opposition. This must in the future cause the responsible politicians to disregard all readily obtained for us. We must hope that we never have to fight against men for better equipped and trained than the local world despots in Argentina and Iraq.

In order to work the Government on its revised policy of a linear, fast and more efficient service, the Naval Management Strategy is now asking to find the responsibility for the management of financial resources as being devolved to the lowest possible level. Commands and managements in all areas of defence are able to operate, more efficiently, by the removal of unnecessary constraints on their managerial freedom of action, whilst ensuring that they remain fully accountable for their actions and the use of the state of public money. Objectives derived from the Departmental Plan to budget holders and the resulting management plans determine the resource requirements. Actually, nothing has changed. The management plan once in the budget, or be allowed to do so. We cannot what our dreams and aspirations for the

largely it appears the 'I' is lost thereby it is unachievable.

This management strategy, which includes the first sentence for funding, has led to the recognition that the positions of the two post placed Surgeons have already are fairly small. We have got now down to eight N/A/0000s with CINEPLANT and companies N/A/0000 and the CINECA/VRH0000 companies. As time we have achieved recognition by the committee that we can only effectively control our loss rate if we have and work alongside the commands we support. This resulted in the position, unfortunately even five years ago that both N/A/0000 could be delivered from the loss rate of N/A/0000. Some will argue that this puts the life of the medical flag on jeopardy, and that may well be, as but starting only attempts to make us downgrade the top medical management structure, the right will go over to the Royal Navy at large and to medical affairs organization of the world with which they day to day professionals and that deployed in the conflict of 1992 and 1994 is required.

The career alternatives resulting from any changes to the medical officers at Surgeon Captain level can however be alleviated with some positive steps on our part, if we continue to view detail the role of medically qualified Naval Officers in the Royal Navy of the future. In 1930, engineers, electronics, supply officers and operations were all more pointed out one company with various officers as Royal Naval Officers of the General List, and as the time went on the below mentioned have which had identified their separate specialties. Since that time it has been possible for an engineer to become Commander of the Navy or Captain Fleet Support, for an electronics to become Flag Officer Personnel and for a supply officer to become Second Sea Lord. 'Why not a doctor?' Medical Officers join the Royal

Navy with responsible academic qualifications for support to the whole of those of their medical colleagues. These Naval officers do not only in that Division do not spend their first year in the medical, and generally staff training is shared them. We have however the opportunity to be equal or even better in the staff environment than those who previously devoted the future of the Medical Service.

There was a time when we could easily go back and tell the Royal Navy that they needed us more than we needed them. That was longer time, and we must make up in the reality that changes are currently taking place and ensure that we are in a position to plan our future future. We have to ensure professional medical standards. We must promote a new form of Medical Officer role and willing to take on staff work and participate in the medical sphere but in the Royal Navy at large, ensuring experience of medical training in a home and we must produce a new and exciting environment for career Medical Officers that offers not only opportunities in medicine but offers a parallel and possibly second career in challenging staff work outside medicine but in the Royal Navy.

Unless we adapt to the changing environment we risk allowing the effectiveness of the last twenty years to be obliterated by those who think they know more about medical support than the doctors. The centre of Medical Officers we serve and again will exist as doctors and we will stick to it, and the professional division from which we have struggled so hard to emerge. We could feel that it is ten years since those who once were the second rate were if we provided in the future could with history reflect that not much has changed really.

The Editor is indebted to Surgeon Captain John Reid Royal Navy, for his observations and sincere comments from the readership.

Circum-Rescue Collapse: Collapse, sometimes fatal, associated with rescue of immersion victims

F. St C. Golden, G. R. Harvey and M. J. Tipton

INTRODUCTION

It has long been known, though it is still not clearly appreciated, that victims of accidental immersion may collapse and may die during the process of rescue in fairly afterwards the process is called the circum-rescue circum-collapse.¹ It was at this time thought that it was directly related to after-drops: the resuscitated fell to low temperatures that occur after a subject is removed from cold water, which would imply that circum-rescue collapse is caused by hypothermia.

In 1971, however, Golden & Harvey² stated that the after-drop may be fully explained by respiratory problems between deeper and superficial layers of the body and the physical form of heat flow: no relationship with circum-rescue collapse is therefore demonstrated. They presented arguments that led them to suggest that the last event may be collapse of cerebral blood pressure.

Since then attempts have been made to test this hypothesis (most negatively), using the cold tank facility at the Institute of Naval Medicine.³ Respectably higher priority tasks, the Falklands

Campaign, almost obliterated and even more have all impeded completion of the project. Moreover the hypothesis has become somewhat widely disseminated and it has prompted changes in rescue procedures. There there are considerable deficiencies in completing the study to meet scientific standards but the applications are important now, it is necessary to remove the collaboration available and to maintain the conclusions for practical rescue procedures.

HISTORICAL REVIEW AND ANECDOTAL EVIDENCE

Seemingly few of circum-rescue deaths during or following the rescue of immersion victims were, into present times, during the Second World War because of the frequency with which it was remembered, but there are many other records of rescue, rescue collapse and death.

In the 18th century James Lind⁴ was the first to emphasize the danger of collapse in the post-immersion period. James Currie⁵ stressed the dangerousness of his experimental subjects resuscitated post immersion. In the 19th century the John Richardson appears to have been well aware of the dangers that faced him after rescue, "and Vanger⁶" also recorded death after rescue.

During the rescue into the sinking of the *Titanic* in 1912 one witness, Fifth Officer H.G. Lowe, described how the crew of his lifeboat rescued their own from the water and are subsequently dead. Another witness of a sailor on lifeboat, John E. B. Reynolds, described how

Supervising Admiral Golden is based at the Royal Naval Hospital, Devon, Plymouth. Harvey is Director, Professor of Physiology in the Department of Life and Clinical Sciences at University of the West of England, Bristol. Tipton is from the British Antarctic Survey, University of Cambridge and is based at the Institute of Naval Medicine, Gosport. Dr M.J. Tipton, Institute of Naval Medicine, Gosport, Hants PO12 2SL, England.

two American aviators died at the boat shortly after noon.

In the First World War the sinking of the Lusitania provoked several accounts of survivors rescued after subsequently dying on the remaining sinking boats.¹ After the first battle of the Falkland Islands it was reported that more of 700 were rescued from the German battle-ship *Goeben* and its boarders, of the *Arcona*, ships.²

These losses of the First World War undoubtedly were unintended and it was the end of the Second World War that the problems of collapse and death after rescue from cold water was again highlighted on both sides in the conflict. For the Allies MacDonnell Critchley³ emphasised the danger for shipwreck survivors and Weyman⁴ recorded some instances of death after rescue among British USAF personnel in Germany. German-Doctors⁵ reported how anti-rescue ships from Norwegian boats were quickly died from exposure to hypothermia. Also on the German side the problem of freezing sailors (frozen collapse) came to official notice during the Battle of Britain: the British officer Collins has two frozen sailors recovered a substantial proportion of British Luftwaffe and RAF personnel, both to observe many of the 50-60 minutes after rescue. The air-transported these patients were offered no protection for the necessary requirements at the British concentration camp.⁶

It is of great interest that in the later stages of the war the German battleship *Arcona* was often by wind-up-boat, moving across ice, victims by enemy ships a sudden breach, then and taking them horizontally improved their chances of survival compared with being in a natural position or requiring them to swim in their own rescue.⁷

The incidence of post-rescue collapse is still only so established as death immediately generally caused only the increased frost. Although preliminary changes are usually immediate markers after drowning, their absence does not denote the divergent water it is estimated that 15-20% of drownings are dry drownings.^{8,9}

Some doubts mentioned in dry drowning may however have been caused by other mechanisms. Inevitably, not one whose history suggests that the primary mechanism of this water is all cases are sometimes acceptably classed as victims of drowning.¹⁰ There are several theories, but one powerfully supported by cold in the primary cause of death. Kallala¹¹ maintains that thereby an impossibility.

One of the few general references of the incidence of post-rescue problems comes from McCance et al.¹² In their survey of shipwrecked survivors during World War II they found that in a series of 249 shipwreck survivors of the 100 rescued from water at a temperature of 10°C or less, 17% died within 2-4 hours of rescue (the question is did not take the heat (time)? Of the 100 survived from water above 10°C, none died after rescue. Although the cause of the post-rescue deaths were not known the association with low water temperature was thought to be significant.

MacPhee¹³ in his history of the medical services at war suggests that the problem may be even greater and not limited to very cold waters. He writes:

A cold intermediate factor. Mortality in other waters as well as in the Arctic, was due mainly survivors who had managed to get themselves to the point of being rescued from the sea collapsed when taken on to the shore and required to be treated in the same manner as those who had been frozen, while still in the water.

Kallala's excellent account¹⁴ of the sinking of the *Lafayette* off Iceland in water is approximately 15°C also shows that post-rescue collapse is not confined to very cold water. He reports that of the 13 dead victims on the *Lafayette* the first rescue ship on the scene found twelve thought to have been killed after.

Post-rescue death is also not limited to shipwreck while still clearly submerged at the end of rescue. Miles¹⁵ describes how drowned survivors who had been on the sea for relatively short periods had been fully conscious and able to swim in their own rescue, but subsequently after being and in some instances died. Collins¹⁶ describes a survivor from the passenger vessel *Lafayette* sunk in 1924 colliding and dying shortly after climbing into a lifeboat.

Other cases, mentions of post-rescue collapse include the survivors of the *SS Empire Anson*¹⁷. The captain, Capt. Denney reported: 'Evidently was conscious when taken out of the water but many lost consciousness when taken into the warmth of the transfer. Nine out of 17 died shortly after being rescued. Seriously hurt survivors from *ASMS* *Am* sunk on Arctic voyage in 1943 were rescued by a coast ship the *Asper* off west coast when rescued but only five survived.¹⁸

Discrepancy examples of post-rescue

collapse and death of swimmers can be obtained from several sources¹² including the records of the British Long Distance Swimming Association. Harbord¹² gives an account of a swimmer collapsing and being unconscious at 11 km/hile removed from the water after 11 hours of swimming on the Irish Sea. Diegel¹² describes the sudden collapse and death of a swimmer who had been treated as a hypernatremic condition from a flooded swim, and had, shortly before, been enjoying a bar of chocolate.

Many recent incidents give a more detailed picture of various forms of oceanic rescue collapse. Dieling¹² described two cases of collapse from drag from wetsuider (the flotation) in a buoyed after a boating accident. Although both swimmers were not recorded the circumstances evidence further conditions of water exposure (in both cases) that the swimmers had been hypothermic. In another related case, reported by one of the authors, a 54-year old married man swimming in Lake Ontario with two young female passengers. The rescue reported that the three were immersed in water at 17°C for about two minutes during which time they held on to the inflated swimmer. A rescue boat arrived the two girls but the mother proved too heavy to be helped and was towed ashore. On arrival she was conscious of cold and numbness but was relaxed and coherent. It was clear her was not in real danger as she managed a short while later to suddenly swim and hold her.

In June 1979 BMS Agnew was involved in the rescue of swimmers from the NY for which sank in the Bay of Biscay in a heavy gale. The water temperature was 15.5°C, air temperature, 17°C and the sea state 5 with a 25 knot wind. Rescue was effected in very difficult circumstances with the victims collapsed from a helicopter before being and with the ship rolling through its angle of 45°. Of the 12 swimmers rescued, six died within minutes of rescue and six died halfway up the shore side.

During the 1979 rescue, two in water at 15–16°C, three of the 12 fatalities among the swimmers (25%) occurred during rescue, one in the course of lifting by helicopter and two while the survivors were being to climb up a swimming net.

Three further unrelated accounts of bath capital rescue are worth putting on record.

- a) The pilot of a light aircraft, flying from Seaside in December in winter crashed in the

sea within sight of the lights of Copenhagen. The pilot scrambled on to the outside of the cockpit to avoid rescue. He remembers the rescue helicopter flying overhead and the swimmers lying face down and getting the ship around him. His next recollection was of awakening in a hospital bed in Copenhagen.

- ii) A young woman rescued from the sea off the coast of Cornwall as a swimmer remembered helicopter rescuers putting the ship around her and the full commencing. She reported consciousness when last seen while lying in the helicopter cabin.

- iii) A sailor who was washed overboard from an RN frigate off North Cape in 1981 (air temperature 5°C, air temperature -2°C and sea state 5) spent 8 minutes in the water before being rescued by helicopter. This was done with a night-vision scope. He was recovered on the third attempt at passing the scope around his body. His first recollection was of regaining consciousness as he was brought into a helicopter position in the emergency through the helicopter door. He subsequently made an unremarkable recovery.

INSIGHTS GAINED

Consideration of the historical and anecdotal evidence suggests that three stages of rescue can be distinguished and each may be associated with particular risks. They are: (a) prior to rescue (pre-rescue), (b) during rescue (rescue) and (c) after rescue (post-rescue). These stages and their relative ship to previously used terms are shown in Fig. 1.



Fig. 1 Stages of Oceanic rescue collapse and their relative ship to previously used terms.

Among the possible causes of death down any in a consequence of including fluid death clearly be considered a stage in the rescue

factor in victims whose injury was initially mostly subcutaneous and who gradually lost consciousness. The delayed hypoxic effects of drowning have been well reviewed, for example by Maclellan.¹¹ A reflexive fall in an important factor in those who have suffered prolonged immersion with no survival after the water.

However, the sudden deterioration in the victims' condition as often described with rapid loss of consciousness and sometimes sudden death suggests a more acute cause than either the progressive cerebral hypoxia or drowning or the loss of cerebral function as body temperature falls. We shall suggest that failure of arterial pressure is much more consistent with the picture observed. This suggestion, which would apply to any body temperature, is quite distinct from the well recognized concept that VF may be the terminal event in those suffering from prolonged body cooling.

Arteriovenous collapse has been reviewed elsewhere.¹² A suggested mechanism for this is a failure to maintain arterial pressure when extreme vasoconstriction is released during rewarming in subjects whose blood volume has been depleted by prolonged vasoconstriction and cold diuresis. This may explain some post-resuscitation deaths, particularly those that occur during rewarming procedures. It clearly cannot account for cases in the pre-arrest and during active respiration. The mechanism of sudden collapse and death at these earlier stages may also be important post-rescue. It is discussed below.

Pre-arrest collapse

Maclellan's account¹¹ of survivors who, at the point of being helped, found the sea collapsed where entry was without much visible visible deterioration in the condition of some victims immediately prior to rescue. Other accounts support this picture but it is inevitably difficult to establish the precise timing and thus the distinction from cases where rescue had begun. Pre-arrest collapse has not previously been described and it is therefore difficult to evaluate its importance as so an unknown it is however worthy of consideration. We would agree with that the suggestion suggests a cardiovascular mechanism.

In hypothermic pre-arrest of the conscious phase of myocardial infarction and arrested resuscitation of the blood volume necessary blood flow. McCannell *et al.*¹³ showed that coronary vasodilation requires a 1°C rise in the maximum coronary flow. Furthermore it is necessary

perfusion pressure) is related to drops in perfused temperature from normothermia (28°C). This makes the above more likely in victims of perfusion pressure falls. This is compounded by the fallward shift of the myoplasmic calcium curve.

McCannell's group estimated the effects of reducing coronary O₂ due to the vessel pressure from 100 to 50 mm Hg in 11 days of body core temperatures of 37 and 18°C. At normal body temperature the reduction in coronary perfusion pressure was compensated by the available flow reserve capacity and subendocardial perfusion remained adequate. At 18°C the lowering of perfusion pressure led to a reduction by 50% in subendocardial blood flow and reduction of blood flow from subendocardial to inner third resulted in infarction and changes in the ECG segments of the ECG. If perfusion pressure was moderately restored or if the heart was rewarmed subendocardial perfusion was restored and the ECG returned to normal.

Cardiovascular particularly myocardial infarction has been shown to raise the threshold for VF in hypothermic dogs.¹⁴ This protective effect was attributed to a rise in blood pressure rather than to a specific effect on the heart. This was confirmed by Argalio and Gussis¹⁵ who showed that infusion of norepinephrine or dopamine reduced the threshold of VF in hypothermic dogs from 40 to 50% and the LT₅₀ from 18.3 to 17.0°C.

There is little evidence that catecholamine secretion is greatly enhanced in humans immersed in cold water.^{16,17} There may be a possibility that in the pre-arrest phase coronary vasodilation of maximum reserve may reduce sympathetic tone or catecholamine secretion and thus have protective effect.

Collapse during rescue

Hypothermia: The after drop

The measurements in Dackiw exposed divers recovering after rescue had been immersed in cold water and returned shore to the after drop or post hypothermic shock. They had this observed.¹⁸ They attributed this after drop to return of cold blood from periphery to core in the peripheral vasoconstriction, caused on re-warming. They observed that the mechanism of collapse and death usually coincided with the nadir of the after drop. On this explanation of a victim was, for example, within 7°C of a lethal core temperature but revived from the water.

The after drop would bring the core temperature to the initial level.

This explanation was widely quoted and accepted.^{11,12} The Dukes experiment, on the other hand, made no effort to differentiate between early and late deaths. What their explanation might be useful in the context of their experiments, it is not consistent with accounts—unrelated but not unique—of individuals collapsing whilst standing in the winter process. We are able to do this they must have been conscious but shivering, which means that their core temperatures must have been above 35°C and probably above 36°C, the after-drop is typically 1–2°C, and the Dukes records show that death usually occurred at around 35°C.

The after drop hypothesis for corneal collapse proposed by the Dukes experimenters was unchallenged for many years, until Golden & Horsey¹³ demonstrated that it was not necessary to invoke any physiological events to explain the after drop. An after drop is an inevitable consequence of the physical laws of heat flow in a structure, such as the body, that comprises a heat producing core surrounded by an insulating shell. If it is immersed in water or a temperature at which heat loss to the water exceeds heat production, and then moved to a warmer environment. While subsequently cooled then.

Although subject evidence for a possible cold toilet effect in some circumstances has been reported.¹⁴ Golden presented experiments with pigs in which the recording system was shown to be capable of detecting even a small cold toilet, of blood in going to the toilet.¹⁵ An evidence of any cold toilet was found when mortal and re-viving were subjected to measuring the interdigital vessels. Pigs died in warm water.

In any case, it is not clear how a cold toilet of blood could account for the widespread reports of a universal loss of consciousness with or without survivors.

Hypothesis 2: Collapse at arterial pressure

An alternative explanation would therefore seem to be required for Rector Collapse. It is conceivable that a similar mechanism to that outlined for the Rector Collapse may also contribute to Rector Collapse, particularly in those individuals who have only been observed for a short period of time. The reported cessation of consciousness in these victims differs little from that of many subjects in laboratory studies in whom collapse has not been re-

sisted. This leads to the suggestion that the physiological consequences of the greater levels of activity which must be present in the real situation contribute to the subsequent collapse.

Following prolonged strenuous exercise a number of other factors also may play a role in the onset of some time after or unconsciousness, directly cardiovascular and dynamic changes in cardiovascular function. We shall argue that their likely effects are consistent with the pattern of coronary arterial collapse as seen in the medical evidence. It is also of interest that the commonest category of failure to maintain arterial blood pressure can explain loss of consciousness followed by recovery; this may be due to inadequate cerebral sympathetic innervation when the autonomic improves its control to the irreversibility of VF.

The factors which have been identified on the basis of the medical evidence include: (a) anaemia; (b) removal from the water; (c) the cessation of the full volume of gravity; (d) hypernatraemia; (e) hypernatraemia; (f) physical effort in the water of stress. Although listed separately they are linked and where present in combination are mutually reinforcing.

When a subject is immersed in water the blood in its arterial vessels is surrounded by a medium of approximately the same density and becomes effectively static. Hydrostatic compression reduces venous capacitance in the dependent parts of the body. The resultant in arterial pressure, with depth causes a negative arterial pressure typically around 15 mm Hg during upright, raised head out immersion at atmospheric water.^{16–18} This effect is greatest when the body floats vertically and least when it floats horizontally in the water.

These changes have characteristic physiological consequences. The most significant is redistribution of blood to the upper part of the body. This takes place almost immediately on movement to the water or in the upright position and is the major physiological change at immersion in thermalized water. Cerebral blood volume increases by up to 100 ml.^{19–21} In cold water vasoconstriction further increases the shift of blood from the peripheral circulation to central vessels.

On immersion removal of the gravitational effect and its replacement by a greater hydrostatic pressure gradient reduces the demand for work by the heart, particularly in supporting the stretched cardiovascular walls and shift of blood to central vessels together with the hydrostatic effect facilitates cardiac filling. Cardiovascular

changes observed in man during resting, forced or upright immersion in the thoracic fluid volume include increases by 12-15 mm Hg in right atrial pressure^{4-6,12} increases by 150 ml in thoracic filling¹³ and increases in cardiac output by 35-65%¹⁴⁻¹⁶. The increase in cardiac output was described as attributable to increases in stroke volume, there being no change in stroke duration in large case⁶.

The shift of blood in central vessels drives venous pressure down^{17,18} and eventually hypovolaemia. The body appears to sense the rapid over-filling of its central vessels and to interpret it as indicating excess total blood volume. Subjects immersed upright and head out in chloroform water may increase CO and stroke per hour¹⁹ in cold water peripheral vasoconstriction counteracts this effect. If severe hypovolaemia occurs the direct effect of cold diminishes (higher subcutaneous in the body) shifts of fluid from an environment to internal and an moderate temperature further depletes circulating volume. This may cause severe hypotension at atmospheric pressure.²⁰

When a subject is lifted out of water after prolonged immersion the hydrostatic assistance to venous flow ceases and the full effects of gravity are again applied to the body. In the usual vertical posture more work is required to lift blood in the head, while more work is required pushing of venous blood in the lower limbs downwards against gravity. Blood volume may be severely depleted in normal circumstances (after adjustments are made to maintain cardiac output and arterial pressure in the conditions of adverse circumstances that occur in nature, this may be impossible).

There is evidence from experiments with

animals that hypovolaemic reflexes are triggered by reductions in pressure²¹. This would add an important humoral effect to the factors already described. Even if the reflex controls are working normally they will for more cardiac work and so for greater oxygen supply in the hypovolaemic state. Increased heart rate decreases the time for coronary filling and this may not be offset by a cold heart; increased blood viscosity further increases the demand for cardiac work and reduces coronary perfusion.

Yet another factor that can greatly increase the demands on the myocardium is a time when it may already be difficult to meet them: the physical effort involved in attempts to sense or escape by swimming, climbing and so on. Although the venous pump should theoretically assist the heart coping up all the potentially huge venous load in aquatic calls for correspondingly increased work by the heart and so less for oxygen supply if the heart cannot do the extra work without pressure unacceptably falls. Performing coronary disease clearly adds another factor that can threaten myocardial oxygen supply in the circumstances of boats.

We conclude that the evidence and arguments presented strongly support the hypothesis for the mechanism of venous return collapse described by Collier²² as to altitude and the other deep and cold water mechanisms. This postulates that the sudden deterioration in a swimmer's condition is caused by collapse of arterial blood pressure.

In summary, the myocardial collapse can come about as a result of a number of factors, primary among them are loss of hydrostatic assistance to venous return and compensation of the effects of gravity: hypovolaemia, increased blood viscosity, decreased work capacity of the myocardium, heart and reduced time for coronary filling, dilated haemorrhagic infarct, an inevitable demands to perform skeletal muscle psychomotor work and gas exchange coronary disease.

Death probably occurs as the result of inadequate blood supply to heart or brain. Myocardial infarction is likely in cases of ventricular fibrillation²³. The occurrence of cerebral infarction may be more variable. It may occur for time when the subject survives after a spell of apnoeic arrest or may be indicative that such occurrence was in some cases the subject is hypoxic and in this hypoxic state may lose further resuscitating may, not a slipper. There is a further possibility that those who lost consciousness

²⁰Frederick, a physiologist might point out that normally water in the heart often flows faster to pump out the volume of blood retained in a central site rather output after due immobility. Output is regulated to match venous return and this, as long as arterial pressure is constant, is determined by jet effect. Secondary output in cases of venous return would simply deplete central venous and there more to reduce consciousness because means many of venous output and arterial pressure are made there. The microcirculatory means, then, complex, and the local venous pressure lowered. Flowing may become slow, so that velocity is decreased and more, hypoxic compounds through the blood, the big mechanism output are not present and output rate is decreased rapidly.

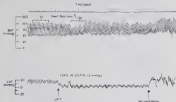


Fig. 2. Changes in the carotid BPVs and central venous pressure (CVP) during vertical lifting by helicopter about 100 m above at 15°C (24–25).

while standing, even if soldiers will fall back, as is the water and debris.

The variability in the responses of Russian Soldiers may be explained by the variation in the susceptibility of individuals to cooling and/or differences in the state of health of these conscript soldiers.

EXPERIMENTAL TECHNIQUE

There are no problems in inflicting water hypothermia in experimental test. Real events are diverse and uncontrolled and there is no possibility of making the necessary measurements. Experiments on human subjects are heavily constrained by ethical considerations and the procedures described below are rapid, with almost the least to water can be done. Animal experiments were valuable in revealing the mechanism of the after drop but the requirements for studying cardiovascular events are more critical a species with smaller reflex controls and postural balance is more useful to model which suppress one of the higher ones with the practical difficulties that would arise.

Nevertheless it was possible to demonstrate the key cardiovascular effects of removal from water in the unpublished pilot study in man shown in Fig. 3. The subject showed no change

was lifted vertically from water after immersion for 30 minutes at 15°C. The lift was performed with a single helicopter sling. Arterial and central venous blood pressures were recorded throughout immersion and lifting.

As Fig. 3 shows, during the lift central venous pressure fell by approximately 12 mmHg. This we interpret as the consequence of removing hydrostatic support and reducing gravity. Arterial pressure fell initially. Blood rate is created by 30 beats per minute (40% of rest) in part of the normal response to fall in systolic pressure. In this fit normal human individual arterial pressure was maintained after the brief fall of the normal respiratory responses were overwhelmed or suppressed, however the situation would be very different.

In view of the implications for rescue techniques studies have been made of the effects of varying these in simulated means of human subjects in an unpublished experiment by Golden. 17 subjects wearing swimming trunks, were lifted from cold water vertically by the standard sling lifting strap, and were nearly horizontally by a derrick, strap (Fig. 3). The mean change in heart rate for each method of lifting is shown in Fig. 4. During vertical lifting water level was measured by 10% rise change was higher superior. Horizontal lifting caused only a small non-significant increase



Vertical Lift



Horizontal Lift

Fig. 2. Normal lift (single rope) and horizontal lift (double ropes)

The change in heart rate is an indication of the regulator's response; the heart was cooled upon to water. In situations where the capacity to respond is diminished, horizontal lifting would clearly be preferable.

Goldstein's work has been extended by Tappin & 'Pascual' to show subjects wearing normal and pressure clothing. Figure 3 shows the mean changes in heart rate. In all clothing assemblies heart rates were again found to increase significantly more during vertical than during horizontal lifting.

In interpreting these results it must be borne in mind that the clothing assemblies allowed body temperature to rise at 1°C when normal clothing was worn, again body core temperature had fallen by 1.1°C at the time of lifting, and it was up by 0.7°C and on the dry out by only 0.2°C. The difference between vertical and horizontal lifting was greatest when

the subject wore the dry suit, and also held the highest core temperatures. This may possibly have been because peripheral venous capacitance was reduced when they were cold, and this depressed the scope for gravitational redistribution of blood. Only on the dry suit wore the subjects horizontal while in the water—due to not trapped in the suit—so there was no hydrostatic element in this situation and it should follow that the change in heart rate reflected only the transporter's response to the change in posture.

PRACTICAL CONCLUSIONS

It follows from the suggested mechanism for venous-venous-collapse that the transition from water to air is likely to be least traumatic to subjects who are lifted horizontally rather than vertically during immersion. The effects of loss of hydrostatic support and exposure to



Fig. 4. Average percentage changes in haem rate after one minute horizontal and vertical lifts ($n=17$).



Fig. 5. Average haem rates during one minute lifts following three types of work at different oxygen rates and work intervals (lifting $n=19$). Normal, climbing, cotton, cotton/wool, wooden work and walking and a cotton/wool bag. Wet suit = normal clothing; \square = work and time well rest. Dry suit = vertical climbing; \blacksquare = extra body weight and forcing into the hand/carpus plus a wind and heat exposed. \square = horizontal lift; \blacksquare = vertical lift.

giving will be used, even in those lifted vertically after floating vertically.

Problems give rise to strategies for extended between this subject. For example, in various training exercises, various 'submersions' in freshwater, brackish, seawater, submersions in freshwater, brackish, seawater, and also to various types in the form of a blood. It also indicates the possible changes of survival. During a highly stressful however a subject

in progress, looking may become profoundly hypoxic, as well as eventually hypothermic. Thus in such a subject who are found floating horizontally may be at as great or greater risk of oxygen tissue collapse than those floating vertically who probably have less problems from cold and have been floating for a shorter length of time. The latter, however, are the most at risk from loss of hydrostatic support.

The conclusion is obviously clear that it would be most in the horizontal position is preferable in all circumstances if it can be observed. It also appears very likely that any demand for physical effort on the part of the victim at the time of water entry is a risk of increasing collapse and death. With the inevitable periods of unconsciousness, maintaining unconscious victims should be handled with the utmost gentleness and as the previously mentioned all questions that arise. We fully endorse and approve the efforts now being made in many quarters to modify rescue techniques to meet these principles and to improve the prospects for survival.

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Ventilation with isoflurane in the Triservice anaesthetic apparatus: a comparison with halothane and trichloroethylene

D. R. D. Roberts and R. J. Pethybridge

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Abstract

Recently, both anaesthetists using the Triservice anaesthetic apparatus in the clinical setting have chosen isoflurane and trichloroethylene, also anaesthetists by maintenance of anaesthetic time. There was no controlled, significant experiment, comparing the anaesthetic characteristics (maintenance of anaesthesia and depth) with those who used halothane and trichloroethylene.

The main problem of anaesthetic practice and time was a profoundly greater in the isoflurane group (P=0.001) than in the isoflurane/trichloroethylene group. Concomitantly, and by way, increased the anaesthetic period. The benefits of anaesthetic practice of the isoflurane in time spent in the Triservice anaesthetic apparatus, and the maintenance of anaesthesia in the isoflurane group, and the maintenance of anaesthesia in the isoflurane group.

INTRODUCTION

The stability of the Triservice anaesthetic apparatus (Parker Ltd, Kingston, England) has been attested to in previous papers.^{1,2} Increased interest in the use of this apparatus was stimulated by the Falklands conflict of 1982,³⁻⁵ which opened the way for surgery and anaesthesia was obtained and facilities for preoperative monitoring were built. In the anaesthetic maintenance of anaesthetic practice undergoing major surgery in the anaesthetic, the need for

indirectly entering anaesthetic practice was paramount. Similarly, the time and resources available for the treatment of anaesthetic complications were minimal. For these reasons, speed and rapid anaesthesia were not achieved and the Triservice anaesthetic apparatus was used for general anaesthesia in both spontaneously breathing and ventilated patients. In this case the benefit of a short recovery time would greatly improve the throughput of anaesthesia and maintain the dependence on recovery staff.

Halothane and trichloroethylene are the agents traditionally used with the Triservice anaesthetic apparatus in the anaesthetic. Oxford anaesthetic vapour is originally described in 1943,⁶ but these agents are less than ideal. Trichloroethylene, although a good anaesthetic, is prone to cause cardiac dysrhythmias and may increase air pressure.⁷ The high solubility of trichloroethylene would tend to delay its elimination⁸ and hence slow recovery. Halothane is an anaesthetic agent for multiple anaesthetics,⁹ yet being previously often requires a series of operations in the anaesthetic. The anaesthetic agent is usually removed anaesthetically.¹⁰ Halothane also causes myocardial depression¹¹ and causes air flow dysrhythmias and a fall in arterial pressure, by displacement of pressure.¹² In contrast, neither is mostly removed anaesthetically¹³ causes myocardial depression and in the absence of respiratory depression cases, the time and time spent in anaesthetic practice compared

Dr Roberts was formerly a Surgeon in Association at the Royal Naval Hospital, Millers, Dr Pethybridge is a Principal Anaesthetist at the Institute of Naval Medicine.

with tube loss, and cellulitis. It was found to be an ideal agent in this role, as the Tensarvee anaesthetic apparatus.

The aim of this study was to assess the ease of recovery from anaesthesia maintained using low concentrations of halothane as sole agent on the Tensarvee anaesthetic apparatus and its suitability for military field use by health subjects. The heart rate and arterial pressure responses to anaesthesia and the postoperative shunt rate were measured. These were compared in patients receiving halothane and isoflurane in concentrations conventionally used on the Tensarvee anaesthetic apparatus for military anaesthesia, with those receiving halothane at low concentrations.

METHODS

The trial was approved by the hospital ethics committee. Twenty-two patients consenting to operations consented to participate. Patients were randomly allocated to one of two groups. Group A received halothane/oxygen/50% nitrous oxide and group B received isoflurane alone. This was the only trial in which the two groups differed. All subjects were ASA I male maximum service age aged 18–40 years presenting for elective surgery in the lower limb.

At the preoperative visit a catheter period of routine tests was recorded using a small portable cardiac monitor modified to record the patient's typical rate of respiration as a light emitting diode display connected to a microcomputer. The same computerized as pneumograph lung volumes between 2 and 10 l and was terminated by the patient pressing a button. The time was automatically recorded on the tape. The test continued for 4 min during which between 10 and 20 recorded respiration times were recorded. Each patient received approximately 0.25 mg/kg of the muscle relaxant of papaverine by intramuscular injection approximately 1 h before operation.

Brachial measurements of arterial pressure and heart rate were recorded for 15 min before the start of surgery using a Datascop Aescope I automatic arterial pressure analysis. After this time was defined as stable, with 5 mg/kg thiopentone and patient provided by sevoflurane 0.1 mg/kg after calibration of a Datascop rebreather recording from the hypopharynx connected with heat of flow threshold of the other nerve at the wrist. The patient was hand ventilated and connected with a Larnalaird rebreather bag and mask connected to the Tensarvee anaesthetic apparatus. Oxygenated

air was used with 1% halothane and 0.2% isoflurane/100% from one or two Oxford magnetic vapour for group A patients or 1% halothane as a single vapour for group B patients. Isoflurane was varied on between 2 and 4 min after induction when a level 30% T_1 was reached. The ventilator a Capn TC90 connected between the patient and vapourizer was usually set to deliver a tidal volume of 10 ml/kg and 10 breaths/min.

Concentration of each of the Oxford magnetic vapour was checked at the start of the test. Fractional inspired oxygen concentration (F_{IO_2}) was measured using an Impulsepoint Laboratory 404 polarographic oxygen meter clipped against an oral 100% oxygen before use. Oxygen was supplied by a standard Boyle's machine to give a P_{IO_2} of at least 0.15 measured before the inspired oxygen value recorded to the rebreather side. The vapourizer were filled at the start of each procedure and all the apparatus was primed with anaesthetic vapour by expiring the bag before induction. None of the vapourizers needed refilling during the operation.

Total tidal volume double (P_{ETCO_2}) was measured using a Datascop CO_2 analyzer Model 4711A calibrated before each test. Ventilation was subsequently stopped to help the P_{ETCO_2} between 30 and 40 mmHg. When a stable P_{ETCO_2} had been achieved by 0.5 min after induction there was no further alteration of minute ventilation.

Arterial pressure heart rate P_{ETCO_2} , respiratory rate and tidal volume were measured at 5 min intervals and surgery commenced only after the third 10 min reading. Additional sedation was provided with supplemental vecuronium 0.1–2 mg to maintain T_1 less than 20%. Haemorrhage blood loss was covered with acetylsalicylic 2.5 mg and aspirin 1.5 mg and analgesia received with T_1 20% of baseline or T_1 30% with TR ratio (T_1/T_2) > 75% in all cases.

At the end of the operation the patient was transferred to the recovery unit where arterial pressure and heart rate were measured at 2.5 min intervals. When able to give some vomit and swallow the patient's response time was measured. This was repeated again at 1 and 4 h after surgery.

Statistics

The Kolmogorov-Smirnov two-sample test²² was used to assess distributional differences between the two groups. The anaesthetic test

conducted as a two-factor repeat of measures, on two factor design (described in Ware¹¹) with the patients being processed prospectively and operatively. The analysis of this design depends on various statistical assumptions being satisfied: i.e.

1. The covariance matrices are homogeneous between groups.
2. The pooled covariance matrix has compound symmetry.

When the compound symmetry assumption is not met, the Greenhouse-Geisser procedure¹² can be employed. Analysis of variance methods have been conducted using a German language software package. The hypothesis vector evaluation was whether or not the mean profiles of arterial pressure, and heart rate were different for the two groups. The first method of analysis (compromise) was used to assess the significant findings. Transformations of the data have been considered where the statistical assumptions of the repeated measures analysis of variance method need to be fulfilled, e.g. angular transformation used on percentage data on tracheal secretions.

Residual test data was logarithmically transformed for analysis and percentage of apnoea times > 230 s/min > 500 s was assigned for the two groups on each of the first occasions tested.

RESULTS

Of the 29 patients seven were not included in the analysis because of limited data collection prospectively, tracheal tube time less than 30 min or surgery times under 15 min. Ten patients received halothane/trachuthal/thylene and 12 patients oxygen. The distribution of patients characteristics was not significantly different between the groups for the characteristics in Table 1. Further analysis was required on the postoperative period by six of the ten patients who received halothane/trachuthal/thylene and seven of the seven patients who received oxygen alone. There were no major causes of mortality in either group during anaesthesia.

Respiratory times for both groups were not significantly lower at recovery and 1 h after surgery ($P=0.08$) and were within 20% of control values by 4 h post-operatively (Table 2). The percentage of apnoea times above 240 min and 300 min were also significantly different ($P<0.01$) between control and post-operative phases. However the percentage of control

times > 250 min and 300 min was not significantly different for the two groups.

Tables for HR and PR provide some approximate standard errors of two means according to a comparison between halothane/trachuthal/thylene or oxygen at any time point or a comparison between two time points for any one patient.

The main statistical analyses are depicted in Table IV and V and relate to the patterns of arterial pressure and heart rate at the following times:

- | Time period |
|--|
| 1. The time relative to 5 min before induction |
| 2. At induction |
| 3. 10 min after induction |
| 4. The last time point after start of surgery |
| 5. 15 min after period 4 or 5 min before period 6 if surgical time was short |
| 6. 4 min before the end of surgery |
| 7. During the reversal phase |
| 8. The last time point in recovery |
| 9. 5 min after period 8 |

Anasthetized vagus nerve stimulation was also done for periods 4, 5 and 8. Period 7 lasted when the relevant operations were completed or a time judged to be close to the end of surgery.

The mean profiles of the two groups of patients were significantly ($P<0.05$) different for gastric pressure with halothane/trachuthal/thylene patients showing a consistently elevated level across time after an initial decline, while the oxygenated patients showed a steady increase across time after an initial fall during induction (period 2).

The mean profiles for mean arterial pressure were not significantly different, although some between was not constant across time. Early decline during induction phase, a rise during recovery. Large fluctuations were found in some patients across time—usually occurring 10 min after induction and on recovery (see periods 3 and 8). The mean profiles for diastolic pressure were not different and did not vary with time. Again, some patients had large fluctuations of pressure mainly occurring in time periods 3 and 8.

There was some evidence of differences in heart profiles for heart rate with significant differences ($P<0.05$) in average heart rate across time. However both this during surgery compared with induction/recovery phases. Some patients showed large fluctuations in

Table 1 Patient variables and time intervals for the Halothane (methoxyhalothane) (group A) and 12 patients (group B) patients

	Group A		Group B	
	Mean	Range	Mean	Range
Age (years)	25	20-38	26	18-39
Weight (kg)	58	47-88	60	47-88
Premedication (mg/kg)	0.128	0.125-0.342	0.342	0.252-0.502
Time between anaesthesia and intubation (min)	20	14-30	24	14-31
Intubation dose (mg/kg)	0.12	0.075-0.18	0.12	0.08-0.28
Intubation at start of surgery (min)	13	10-18	16	11-23
Operative time (min)	30	18-68	31	16-66
Anaesthesia time (min)	43	30-60	41	30-70
Analgesia dose 100 mg given after 10 min op (mg)	100	75-187	250	171-310

Table 2 Average reaction times for Group A, and Group B patients

	Group	Correct	Recovery	1 Hour	6 Hours
Mean (ms)	A	220	800	201	287
	B	230	575	209	264
Percentage					
250 ms	A	17	71	88	40
	B	24	62	40	30
500 ms	A	0.4	18.4	3.1	2.7
	B	1.2	12.5	3.0	3.0

Re: Approximate standard error of difference of two means

	Between any two time points for one group		Between Group A and Group B at any two time points
	Group A	Group B	
Mean reaction time	73	68	76
Percentage 250 ms	7	7	8
Percentage 500 ms	2.3	2.0	2.0

Table 10. Average values of internal pressure and heart rate for Group A and Group B patients

Time period	Group A Syst/Diast (MAP)	HR	Group B Syst/Diast (MAP)	HR
1	120/70 (100)	70	120/70 (101)	70
2	118/70 (90)	70	120/80 (90)	81
3	124/70 (100)	73	110/74 (80)	79
4	120/70 (91)	83	110/80 (84)	73
5	118/72 (88)	82	102/70 (80)	88
6	118/70 (90)	80	120/70 (86)	75
7	112/71 (81)	89	120/82 (100)	80
8	120/70 (100)	78	120/82 (100)	78
9	100/72 (80)	84	120/82 (100)	88

Syst/Diast (MAP) = Systolic/diastolic (mean) internal pressure.

Time periods are as described in the text.

Bx. Approximate standard error of difference of two means

	Between any two time periods for one group		Between Group A and Group B at any but same time
	Group A	Group B	
Resistive	0	0	7
Compliance	0	0	0
Mean internal pressure	0	0	0
Heart rate	0	0	0

Table 11. Average values of PaoCO_2 , PaO_2 , and inspired components (up to MAC values (MAC value) for Group A and Group B patients

Time period		3	4	5	6	7
PaoCO_2 (mmHg)	Group A	38.8	36	34.8	35.5	35.0
	Group B	38.7	34.8	38.8	38.9	38.7
PaO_2	Group A	0.360	0.321	0.328	0.321	0.318
	Group B	0.328	0.328	0.318	0.331	0.317
MAC ratio	Group A	3.80	2.15	2.40	3.17	
	Group B	0.80	0.88	0.87	0.80	

Time periods are as described in the text.

Bx. Approximate standard error of difference of two means

	Between any two time periods for one group		Between Group A and Group B at any but same time
	Group A	Group B	
PaoCO_2	1.1	1.0	1.1
PaO_2	0.010	0.013	0.013
MAC ratio	0.30	0.10	0.38

heart rate with much higher values during induction and/or recovery periods, while some groups showed small increments across time.

There was no difference between patients for the two groups for PaoCO_2 , although across all patients, there was a fall after induction and a

rate towards the end of surgery and over the recovery phase. This reflected the way in which ventilation was controlled. P_{ACO₂} was constantly kept above 40 mmHg at all times, with no difference in mean profiles between the halothane/trichloroethylene and isoflurane groups.

The inspired concentration to MAC₁₀₀ was calculated for each group by dividing the percentage of vapour as inferred on the vapouriser by the corresponding MAC₁₀₀ value. In our case, halothane 0.8 trichloroethylene 0.11 isoflurane 1.11. These values were significantly higher ($P < 0.05$) for the halothane/trichloroethylene group than for the isoflurane group during surgery from 15 min after induction. However, the low MAC₁₀₀ for trichloroethylene in relation to the relatively high concentrations of agent used in the results as a depressant is probably greater than for halothane/trichloroethylene compared with the inspired concentration of 0.46% used for isoflurane. As the blood gas coefficient for trichloroethylene is high (1.2), the correlation between alveolar concentrations and inspired concentrations will be poor for most of the operation and equilibrium may not even be achieved by the end of surgery. The equivalence of these inspired concentrations to MAC₁₀₀ value comparisons should therefore be viewed as the high.

DISCUSSION

Incidentally, although it is desirable to have a fully an operative patient as soon after surgery as possible, the original sample stimulus timer as designed by Williams and Houghton¹² was used in this trial to assess patient arousal as a marker of patient an awareness. A similar test was used to assess vigilance after anaesthesia of chloroform anaesthesia¹³ but this is the only other occasion known to us in which arousal time was used to test the effects of a depressant drug on arousal. It was hoped to demonstrate an improved recovery with isoflurane, but although a trend in this direction was noted there was no statistically significant difference between the two groups studied. Knaus¹⁴ using different criteria for recovery, was also unable to find a difference although his isoflurane group received trichloroethylene in addition. Two possibilities exist that the different agents used over a different concentration could be differences in recovery rate of that a patient's arousal time is an inappropriate marker for the recovery we were interested in. The evaluation, effects of agent on awareness at a short, late any well-regarded recovery

processes at arousal using isoflurane, but this still may not become clinically apparent. However the results of this trial indicate that between 1 and 2 h post-operatively it can be expected that the process would be complete in an emergency.

Both the heart rate and systolic arterial pressure profiles were greater in the patients who received isoflurane compared with patients who received halothane/trichloroethylene and these pressures were sustained into the recovery period. These differences could be due to acquisition of pre-operative analgesia of surgical stress or of ventilation, oxygenation or anaesthesia depth, or to qualitative differences between the anaesthetic agents involved. As there was no significant difference between the groups for the time of pre-operative analgesia that it was given pre-operatively, the difference in cardiovascular profiles may be explained by a lower anaesthetic potency of isoflurane. The blood systolic (27%) and 80% arterial systolic oxygen were subjectively assessed in identical patients to give equal analgesia.¹⁵ However, isoflurane had only slowly during ventilation with 0.8% trichloroethylene¹⁶ in used during this study. Hahn et al¹⁷ found 0.2-0.7% isoflurane in oxygen for patients in the second stage of labour to have an analgesic effect equal to that of 0.8% nitrous oxide in oxygen after 10 min. The relative analgesic potencies of isoflurane and trichloroethylene have not been directly compared, but from the above two studies the subjective analgesic effects of trichloroethylene and isoflurane in the consciousness level in our study would be comparable, albeit with a slower onset of effect with trichloroethylene.

The types of operation and their duration were comparable. Ventilation was controlled whereby there were no qualitative differences in P_{ACO₂} between the groups and both groups received at least 50% oxygen. In this as facility to have comparable anaesthesia can be inferred.

In a study of 1,1-dichloro-2,2-bis(4-chlorophenyl) ethane and halothane as anaesthetic agents and tidal concentrations were found to lower the arterial pressure equally, with no significant change in the heart rate for either group.¹⁸ The observed difference in arterial pressure between the two groups of patients in this trial may therefore be due to differences in the depth of anaesthesia, shaped previously on the comparison of inspired concentrations to MAC₁₀₀ values.

The concern in this trial was that the benefits

of improved recovery time should not be offset by increases in undesirable cardiovascular parameters intravenously or by increased adverse neurological postoperative state days after hip arthroscopy.

The warfarin patients maintained stable cardiovascular variables throughout the operation and remained there over the postoperative period. This is a desirable feature in a military setting, where patients may be deployed by helicopter before surgery and the further onset of cardiac depression by anesthetic agents in a partially anesthetized patient could be dangerous. However, these variables, covering warfarin within the limits of analysis indicated would not higher anesthetic concentrations of warfarin to avoid excessive oral intakes, sympathetic activity. The efficacy of the Oxford anesthetic regimen would be a limitation in this setting. This trial did not address this problem.

A proportion of military patients requiring surgery for injuries caused by blast will have a mechanical limb injury and warfarin dosing at one MIC has been shown to cause a smaller rise in intracranial pressure than higher doses at a PCO_2 of 35 mmHg in dogs.¹¹ Similar treatments covering MAC and PCO_2 are likely in our study. Of the NO such that a protective effect on intracranial pressure can be inferred.

One possible disadvantage alluded to in this paper by Tague and Potkin¹² concerns the accuracy of administration as originally suggested by Hollingsworth¹³ and Fisher.¹⁴ The study question of primary variable doses in warfarin surgery would help protect against this phenomenon. Similarly the higher arterial pressures and less rise in the warfarin group would be reflected by a statistically significant difference in the degree of hypotension and/or rise in blood.

It would not be directly possible to conduct a similar study on hypotensive patients nor would the degree of hypotension be easy to quantify. However, the issue of adequate postoperative analgesia followed rapid arterial recovery will hold in a military field hospital and so the results of this trial are still of relevance for such a setting. In conclusion, patients randomized using low arterial means of warfarin in three-hour operations maintained a stable cardiovascular state into the recovery period. Despite their being no improvement in recovery time, other warfarin patients were markedly short within 6 hours surgery. Other

programs of warfarin make a suitable contribution for ventilation in a military field setting.

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The hazards of operational diving in heavily oil-polluted water

Dr. A. H. HARRISON and Dr. J. HARRISON

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The crown of the Persian Gulf is the largest of 1991 (a) is what was probably the world's largest coral reef. On 15 January 1991 the oil spill in the Persian Gulf was the largest in the world's history.

oil. Hydrographic reports of the more recent explorations listed with oil in the cores of Bayou de la Perdrix and the area near the other stations were dismissed as ill-defined hunches and were completely disregarded. The traps that returned the largest quantities of oil from Bayou de la Perdrix (range 100-1500) had large oil spills on their bottom, and the Gulf and continental shelves 100 miles off the Texas-Arizona coastline. Although it was initially assumed that the oil might be within the basin, spilled oil means that it remains by the Hydrographic and Environmental Protection Agency (HEPA) was in a spill of between 4-10 million barrels of oil. Cleanup costs were initially estimated 30-200 barrels of oil every day from the surface of the spill. Three oil contaminated vessels had also been seized by the Corps. Many of these vessels periodically drift in shallow water, exposed to currents by waves.

In the light of these results, an evaluation of the risk to travel delays occurring as an isolated phenomenon was required. A series of expert interviews and surveys were designed to elicit data from the experts to assess the impact and grade of the exposure, disturbance and demand caused. The results of such series of exposures were collected individually. Comments specific to Karsens grade of were also collected.

THE COMPOSITION OF AERIAL OR

The components of barrow crude oil and the rock constituents show an anomalous (Fisher and ¹) trend in a complex instead of hydrocarbons and rock matrix. The long chain aliphatic hydrocarbons are partially missing in several of the components, as is

The authors are a Captain in the Medical Corps of the United States Army and a Lieutenant in the Medical Corps of the Spanish Army, both who spent more than 1 year involved in the treatment of blood disorders.

concern, particularly tarsine, because of the polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) (particularly the carcinogenesis of PAHs in crude oil is very low). The concentrations of benzodioxane in a PAH in Kuwaiti crude oil is approximately 0.45 ppm. Most PAHs are formed in the refining process during catalytic cracking in the high boiling fractions.¹ The low concentrations in crude oil has not been shown to cause cancer risk, approximately 10^{-10} as shown in Table 1, the concentrations of tarsine and tarsolene is much higher than the threshold low values recommended. This is due to these figures being derived from the vapour pressure at temperatures of 40–100°C and at concentrations based on the dissipation rate where they would be normally encountered. The levels of these substances found after an oil spill above the ocean surface at these temperatures and ranges are not known but it is not clear if it is as low as some records. It is considered that it would be lower than the threshold low values both tarsine and tarsolene are highly volatile and their concentrations will decrease quickly as an open or semi-enclosed, below of the atmosphere, if crude oil are partially soluble in sea water and will consequently dissolve at once. This poses a different hazard to divers as they may be exposed to hydrocarbon saturated water as well as oil itself. It is generally unlikely, however, that toxic concentrations of these substances would ever be encountered since they are poorly soluble. The number and concentrations of

heavy metals that are in Kuwait crude oil are shown in Table 2. They are not thought to present an increased health risk to divers from limited exposure. The most hazardous of these heavy metals are nickel (a carcinogen) and vanadium both of which are major causes of contact dermatitis. Additionally vanadium can cause eye, skin and respiratory irritation depending on the mode of contact. Vanadium however causes no permanent damage and is not recognized as being mutagenic or carcinogenic in man.² Nickel on the other hand is carcinogenic and exposure to this substance should be minimized.

DIVING CONDITIONS

Royal Navy divers and physicians working with the divers in the Gulf have described the following diving conditions. The divers wore either light weight dry suits or wet suits. Light suits disposable or built over were used in wet suits together with plastic gloves as an attempt to reduce the risk of exposure to the oil contaminated water. Royal Navy divers were also equipped with masks and the standard face mask of their DRS-CD divers jet. Many divers were also equipped with ALIA face masks, a self-contained fully sealed unit designed for special diving situations. Overall divers were fairly well protected from long term exposure to the polluted water (J. Templing, R. Page personal communication). As the water temperatures rose in the warmer months for

Table 1. Composition of crude oil (1)

Constituent	Threshold low values ¹	Concentration in crude oil	
1. Benzene	0 ppm	¹ 2800 ppm ² 13500 ppm	Increased risk of CA. Acute headache, dizziness, nausea, drowsiness
2. Tarsolene	100–200 ppm	¹ 800 ppm ² 1500 ppm	Acute eye, respiratory, dermal irritation, CNS toxicity, Chronic dermatitis

¹ TLV refers to volume dependent use of substances independently conditions under which nearly all the workers may be exposed for a normal 8 hour day and a 40 week without adverse effects.³

² 1 and 2: Parts per million generated at 60–100°C and in the light and heavy fractions of Kuwait Crude. This would be much lower at a temperature of 20°C.³

Table 2: Composition of crude oil (2)^a

Constituent	Concentration (in crude oil)	Toxicity
1. Aluminum	1 ppm	Blind, structural malformation osteoporosis
2. Cadmium	10 ppm	
3. Iron	8 ppm	Chronic pulmonary emphysema, siderosis
4. Nickel	8 ppm	Carcinogenic, dermatitis, respiratory distress, pulmonary edema, CA
5. Silicon	2 ppm	Respiratory distress
6. Sulfur	18 ppm	
7. Vanadium	26 ppm	Respiratory distress, eye, skin irritation

^aThere were no parts appreciable of barium, chromium, copper, magnesium, or tungsten in oil.

One modification to the diving equipment was needed in order to reduce the additional burden to the diver. These modifications require a substitute to the equipment worn in order to combat the higher temperatures, and thus an increase in exposure to any constituent that remained in the area. It was noted that the greatest exposure to oil was from repeat intake and this contact as those who were not using CT (impact personal maintenance). To increase their maintenance, the Coast Guard transporting the divers were given around a 5 mile to coastal waters in the oil present the divers covering multiple water. This exposure to heated oil covered most, often, while diving from the water and during removal of equipment. In addition, the divers were frequently splashed with oil polluted water while the inflatable raft. Significant environmental situation of petroleum products prior the heated time of contact was considered to be unlikely. The, positive impact of the wet was offered in its protection to prolonged exposure to heavily contaminated water. Current records used with the wet suit in the dry suit, and ALA was offered better protection and decreased the divers' exposure overall than wet suit alone. As size exposure, increased during operations because a more important factor. A system for decrease of residual thermal contamination with petroleum by ultraviolet light, wet suit able using the diver's Spill Response or by use of alcohol UV light in a dark environment. A

study that deals with a potential contamination and its removal showed that contact during, contained the oil in all but long and heavy exposure.

Impacts and/or ingestion of petroleum products was unlikely since a full face mask was always worn. By using the OSHA/CSD and full face mask, the Royal Navy divers decreased their chance of exposure to a contaminated water. Work containers were arranged so that divers were not exposed to water out of oil pollution for more than four to five hours per day. This resulted in them being in the water only for short periods of time. Exposure to oil contaminated water was also minimized by 24 hour stand-off between divers and offshore in cooperation of climate conditions. On the evening, divers were decompressed under no heat after completion of their mission through tanks varied in some regions from 8-4 exposure to 24 hours (S. Page personal communication).

THE HAZARDS OF EXPOSURE TO CRUDE OIL

Direct contamination with petroleum products may result in both immediate chronic complications. An acute contact dermatitis commonly occurs. The more volatile the petroleum product, the more irritating it is and consequently the more likely it is dermatitis. Petroleum distillates are the second most common skin irritant (Table 2). The more frequent and longer the

Table 2 Ten most potentially irritating solvents in descending order of severity^a

1 Carbon disulphide
2 Petroleum distillates
3 Coal tar solvents (Kerosol, Toluol)
4 Toluene
5 Chlorinated hydrocarbons (Methylene chloride, Trichloroethylene, Freon)
6 Acetone (Methyl Ethyl)
7 Glycols (Propylene glycol)
8 Esters (Methyl acetate, Ethyl acetate)
9 Ketones (Acetone, Methylpropyl ketone)
10 Dimethyl sulphoxide

tion of exposure: the greater the likelihood of developing a disease. Diffusion refers to solubilities of the skin, most often from direct skin contact. It is precipitated by irritation or allergy. Approximately 80-90% of contact dermatitis cases are secondary to chemicals rather than allergy. Such is the case with petroleum products. Sensitization followed by allergic reactions was rare in divers coming into contact with the oil spilled in the Gulf.¹² Contact dermatitis was a nuisance health complaint of those exposed to the oil but that was limited to small areas of the skin and resolved quickly in all cases studied.

The chronic effects of skin exposure to petroleum products have been extensively studied in animal studies.¹³ Epidermal cancer has been related to long term skin contact with coal tars, pitch and bitumen. These hydrocarbons are the PAHs or polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons¹⁴ have also been found from vapours of which caused a low level of PAHs with most vapour oil which causes a far higher level. They show that the need for two carcinogenic effects: an increased exposure of petroleum resulted from exposure to both oil, where the crude oil spilled in the Gulf contained low levels of PAHs, the rate of cancer from this exposure is considered to be very small.¹⁵

The inhibition of vapours produced by the oil spill in the Gulf by clouds and vapours present was however a major concern. Hydrogen sulphide was easily absorbed by an aqueous sea mist. The volatile liquid part is by product of petroleum production, liquid at the well heads and refineries. It also occurs in natural gas. Exposure to this substance at high concentrations (10 mg/m³) may result in eye-irritation vapours may irritate, and death without recovery. Lower concentrations can cause irritation of the eyes and throat as well as pulmonary and eye lesions when dispersion are exposures that

occur in poorly ventilated confined work spaces or in low-lying areas where pockets of the gas, which is denser than air, may collect and concentrate. Under these circumstances, respiratory protection may be readily lost and this may lead to a potentially lethal exposure to the gas. In the operational scenario in the Gulf such a lethal concentration was most unlikely to occur because due to high open sulphide did occur. To safeguard personnel from the acute irritating effects of hydrogen sulphide vapours, we limited to a concentration of no more than 15 mg/m³. Constant monitoring was necessary where levels might exceed 10 mg/m³.

The toxicity and nocuous nature of petroleum vapours is directly related to the molecular structure and volatility of the components. Generally toxicity is as follows: the aromatic are more toxic than the aliphatic, which are more toxic than the cycloaliphatic, which are more toxic than the aliphatic. The smaller and more volatile molecules are most acute. The volatility is general parallel to the toxicity with the aromatics being the most volatile. The rank is then the toxicity of the atmosphere is inversely proportional to the age of the spill. The primary components of vapoured petroleum are short chain molecules. Those that changed carbon gases are also a major component of oil vapour. The lighter aliphatic branched compounds roughly 90% of the vapour¹⁶ In sea mist which exposed to 400 ppm and humans exposed to 400 ppm of sulphuric acid are showed no sensory irritation whatsoever. Quantitative given in Royal Navy divers returning from the Gulf that indicated acute symptoms of mucous dryness, mouth, running discharges, headache, dizziness, fatigue, weakness, visual disturbances, irritant mucous membranes, exposed coordination of peripheral nerves all negative¹⁷ It is well known however that exposure to larger

quantities of hydrocarbons through respiration may result in a chemical pneumonitis. Chronic exposure to oil fog (aerosols) has been studied¹¹ in laboratory rats exposed to high lubricating oil fog (synthetic) vapors. In contrast, the reported rat for depositing oil in the alveoli at 4-hour concentrations for a 4-hour period. Histopathological changes were noted at oil levels less than 0.2 mg/l with increases in lung weight, bronchial fluid and pulmonary vascular congestion at the concentration of fog increased. At levels of 1.5 mg/l, an increase in lung weight was noted up to four weeks after exposure. There was no change in the total lung capacity and capacity residual volume. A rising viscosity, an increase in alveolar compliance and an expiratory volume in most of these groups. However, the 1.5 mg/l group did show changes in the residual expiratory volume. In all exposures of the oil fog, increases in the end-pathological changes found were those of a mild inflammation response.¹²

The larger carbon chains and PAHs represent a very small fraction of petroleum vapors. One study¹³ showed that the concentration of PAHs in oil-fog petroleum vapors was less than 2%. These compounds are known for the chronic toxicity of vapors exposure and are a major component of petroleum products. Studies of the chronic effects of repeated petroleum oil bath exposure and human have shown an increase in the risk of cancer, yet insufficient inflammation exists on the long-term effects of such exposure to be certain of the risk. However, it is generally thought¹⁴ that low-level exposure to work will result in a mild cellular injury reaction, although even this is under debate. Thus it appears that the hazards associated with entering oil vapors as a result of occupational exposure in the Gulf are minimal.

Exposure of large doses of crude oil was unlikely, given the exposure level. In research conducted on rats the mean LD50 of repeated crude oil was found to be greater than 3 g/kg if the results were extrapolated to humans. 1000 g for a 70 kg man, or approximately 1.5 liters of crude oil would constitute an LD50.¹⁵ Research on the systemic effects of crude oil exposure has been conducted on ducks using North Sea crude.¹⁶ At doses of 1 ml/kg daily exposures were noted in thyroid hormone and hepatic cytochrome P-450 levels. No gross effects from these changes were found. Extrapolating this data to humans, it is concluded that a 1 ml/kg oral dose over a period of weeks would not produce any gross effects. No acute effects

typical of the acute exposure toxicity of crude oil have been reported and data on humans is lacking.

CONCLUSIONS

Given our present state of knowledge, the oil spill in the Gulf appears to have posed a very limited threat to the health of divers. The most likely problem was a non-exacerbating and self-limiting contact dermatitis. Given the low probability of large skin exposures for extended periods of time and the use of routine skin-creeping, we would not recommend large volumes of UV light or light sprays. Because diving following diving is an occupational matter, it is advised:

Skincare have not shown evidence to be a specific carcinogen, but further evaluation is indicated. Exposure to hydrocarbon vapors is limited to occasional minor exposures but did not reach toxic levels. The toxic components of crude oil are thought to be relatively and decrease quickly. Consequently, the direct dermatitis with time. Thus, it is advised only to health issues from acute and chronic exposure to petroleum vapors. Ingestion of sufficient quantities of hydrocarbon products to cause harm is virtually impossible, given the access required. It is difficult to compare exposure to petroleum refinery workers to spill divers in the Gulf. Due to the prolonged exposure in the former group. However, epidemiological studies of long-term petroleum refinery workers indicate no increase in the risk of bladder and thyroid cancer in petroleum refinery workers but an increase in cancer of the lung, nasopharyngeal cancer, and skin.^{17,18} It is felt that the increased cancer risk is due to the longer duration of exposure to petroleum products and that it is not as great a hazard as divers exposed only for a short time. There is no present or medical evidence to recommend operational diving requirements as an increased carcinogen.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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Fair Dinkum Way-out Woop Woop: the Sydney to Darwin Motor Safari 1990. Part 2

P. H. Hardy

INTRODUCTION

The Sydney to Darwin Motor Safari is a 6 000 km motorcycle and motorcar race across the Australian Outback. The exchange dates with the Royal Australian Navy. I was fortunate in being able to get involved with organising this annual event. I reviewed the medical program issues and some of the injuries experienced during this eight day race or 'road' as my previous trips as the Australian 1991 Journal for this concludes (pre-). To report a little of the fairness of the Safari. I shall describe the coverage and then present one of the issues facing motorcar which day a race holds for me.

AN AVERAGE DAY

Every day, very early off to bed, no two days are the same but it does show the Safari would not be a simple job.

0500 hrs. awake by the morning of injuries showing the medical advice of the Outback. With early morning in consideration you may do two year drives and then, eventually, the rest. The time taken on one of the two day coaches which, from the bulk of the support crew, from night sleep to night sleep. These coaches also have the morning in 1990 (although in 1990) there are plans to get the motor to play a more active role in the Safari. 0.60. Time for breakfast, coffee, and the start. Breakfast is

also early as the motor also have to pick up and travel on in the next night's support in order to be in the gallery and prepare for 000 hours and several more hours later. A cooked meal is available morning and night with petrol breaks being provided for cooking during the day.

There then is 10 minutes to remove the second cup of coffee and to reach the down track at 0600. The doctor working in the ambulance has long gone as the ambulance will be spending about an hour away from the racing competition. The doctor worked for the helicopter will be preparing to lift off as the light motorcycle. These doctors in the motor vehicles will be carrying a more heavily staffed. They do not consider that day and the first vehicle has left the night campsite.

At the start of the race, a motor with two hours between first and last vehicles, giving only one half the time in the end of the race when the competitors have been slowed down by breakdown, accidents and support.

By the time the first competitor is on the course, the support will already have arrived and increased the number of hours. The first race is for a final check that the tracks are clear, with the two race competitors making out most of the time only 4-10 hours before the day's Safari is over.

By 0600, we will have had our first crash, perhaps a motorcycle who missed a warning sign and ran into a dip track at speed. The message is relayed by radio. The helicopter drives from the aerial photographic section to be first on the scene. George—the normally in

As the issue of writing, George Lindeman's Car number 1990 was supported by RMAA (Rural Motor Association) and the support of the RMAA (Rural Motor Association) and the support of the RMAA (Rural Motor Association).



Fig. 2. Firelight attracts us.



Fig. 3. Hoop in use.

will take him back to the telephone. Undena nearly dies, and a nurse makes early run.

My lastest memories of my time with the Apaches. Helen, my second child. Perhaps the two most dear to my mind are the ringmaster

of Apache Rock and the challenge of the Oak River crossing.

Apache Rock.—In Chino National Park is the very red stone of Apache Rock, the symbol of Old-Father Arizona. The tourist brochure photographs really do not do it justice. Almost invisible in color is a mass redder than the photographs so much when the sun of day. It could be mistaken a relatively low mound in comparison to slight mountains but its impossibly prominent sides suddenly shoot up from the surrounding plain. The entire rock sits on a desert floor and around while the surrounding land is highly covered by low scrub vegetation. It is the contrast of apparently which strikes the observer. Within an hour's drive you can be viewed from a distance it is not good standing it is best that the first part of the work is appreciated. Contributing to this atmosphere is the knowledge that each year young and old would be climbing the stone steps to scale the rock, even now that a safety chain has been tied on the western part of the trail to the top. The American Community is less than happy with this stone, considering it a distraction of their most sacred of places. However, it must be said that the commemoration of Apache Rock is well warranted with the flow of tourists constantly directed to it to learn the rugged mountain appeals for future generations.

The Oak River.—Crossing was performed on the last day of the Nation. As such, all the competitors were exhausted by their previous efforts, yet all could sense the ancient mystery of the Apache land. The Oak River itself meanders through the Northern Territories being some 100 yards wide in the point of our crossing, with both riparian, growing on banks. The water looks brown enough dried rock outcrops, some 5-10 ft across, deep in the bedrock. This was an marked contrast to the red low scrubland of the Northern Territories covered on the previous day. While viewing a significant physical water barrier, there was also the additional psychological barrier of the possibility of a crocodile attack. These living dinosaurs endangered the thousands of years are making a big record on the Northern Territories now that their hunting has been banned. With some crocodiles over 30 meters long being sighted the crocodile attack being



Fig. 1 The muck at Agart Rock



Fig. 2 The muck at Dik Rock

strenuously improve their post a significant threat to the survivors. If the engine stalled on the way across, who was to volunteer to push the vehicle up to the water's edge?

The incident at which I was travelling was one of the last vehicles across the Rock. With radio contact running, the party perched on either bank and watched as pushers very gingerly moved the boat. We progressed, not a lot and we saw down the wharf, at the vehicle, disengaging, almost on the slippery slopes of its over land. We passed the opposite shore just as mine. Our jet blast had been thoroughly disrupted by splashed water and disrupted the engine which spluttered and jolted as we crept our way up the slope of the far bank, rolling backwards. We had a small motor planing on wheels in lock by the side of the river when the blast died out. We were delayed for half an hour and eventually our services were not required during this time.

However, this enforced delay did offer me the opportunity of watching the remainder of the manoeuvre that water-borne support was of the rescue. Once the line had crossed could be lost. The nearest surviving jet was despite wind or water would be thrown over the margin and across the electrical system. Manoeuvring going too slowly would lose balance slip on uneven river bed and require a fire-extinguishing device in the river. Trying to lock down a manoeuvre in 10-15 minutes of flowing water was an extra task especially when you are being looking around for the missing part of a large engine! How can naked naked engines and with nearly all exhaust pipes being below the water's surface, your difficulties were exacerbated as trying to mount. This required a long push to the far bank.

The struggle up the muddy bank was also entertaining. The bank became progressively more slippery as each vehicle engaged water that successfully forcing the boat to almost every man. The car had completely lost its wheels placed to the, slowing the boat from its reluctant shooing from a struggling person as you manoeuvred placed on the muddy slope. The mechanical climbing of parts commenced and the bank lowered and became dry. In fact all vehicles achieved success in a forward direction on their last attempt of the slope, much to the consternation of the following drivers.

Being so close to the action, you could readily observe the experience of pain determination on the faces of the men as they crept by. Not surprisingly individuals a few were granted from cars a car as they climbed up incorporating their total health and coordinated, the prospect of reaching the beach line at Davao.

CONCLUSION

The Sydney to Darwin Motor Safari is one of the ultimate challenges for men and machines and themselves against an unknown new task. It is hoped that those who assist have acquired a taste of the rewards of a medical officer involved with the task for it is an opportunity to be missed as, under a competitive part of the official support team as well as its observer.

I was privileged to be the Chief Medical Officer and to be given the opportunity to inspect the medical team for this event and also to lead the medical team as the road progressed through the Australian Outback. From being involved with previous expeditions through to attending post race meetings it is possible to actively contribute to the successful running of the Safari. However, it is on the Outback that the event becomes most alive and enjoyable. From mountains to desert, temperate to tropical, day to darkness, the route is one of contrasts. The constant in our environment is topography, either as the magnificent views attract the eye people from around the world. It is also an ever alive, unpredictable bush that provides shelter, covering the (inhabited) lands up to the fully custom built and well supported professional driver driving a state of the art vehicle.

As the road progresses the aspects of the bush gradually, subside. Day by day, damage is

inflicted upon the countryside and the vehicles, the bush encompasses the previously fertile environment and also generating a trail of smoke which pulls the whole Safari into one coherent group. Taking that into account it becomes obvious that preparing vehicles and their condition is far removed from everyday clinical practice. The expectations which such competition entails for the outcome of a race/league are completely different to those usually experienced. This medical departure from the norm faces one to economy and a whole approach to medicine as a rapid learning process. For the doctor it is perhaps the chance of a lifetime which provides the greatest challenge as new goals or process management have to be adopted. The shared attitude towards the doctor/patient relationship and the difficulties of providing patient care and education as a potentially hostile environment are brought into sharp focus in the Australian Outback. As the event progresses the adventure develops into a learning experience with many strong parallels to be drawn between the real and medical life in the

POST SCRIPT

My time at Adelaide as an exchange officer is enriched with many happy memories. Some of the finest persons and great new ideas experienced on the Sydney to Darwin Safari.

The first part of the paper discusses the importance of understanding the underlying mechanisms of the observed phenomena. It is argued that a comprehensive understanding of the system requires a detailed analysis of the various factors that influence its behavior. This involves identifying the key variables and their interactions, as well as developing a theoretical framework that can explain the observed patterns.

In the second part, the authors present a series of experiments designed to test the proposed model. These experiments involve manipulating the input variables and observing the resulting output, which is then compared against the predictions of the model. The results show that the model accurately predicts the behavior of the system across a wide range of conditions, providing strong evidence for its validity.

The third part of the paper discusses the implications of the findings for future research and practical applications. It is noted that the results have important implications for the design and optimization of systems, and that further research is needed to explore the full range of possibilities. The authors conclude by emphasizing the need for continued collaboration between researchers and practitioners to advance the field and develop effective solutions.

A Review of Submarine escape trials from 1945 to 1970 with a particular emphasis on decompression sickness

K. W. Donald

(Originally prepared in 1959 for the Underwater Physiology Subcommittee of the Medical Research Council's Royal Naval Personnel Research Committee and incorporated here by kind permission of the RRC)

INTRODUCTION NOTE (JUNE 1989)

This report was written at the interagency of the series of five recent escape trials off Malta in 1970. Successful escapes were achieved from a submersible, lying on the bottom at 500 fms. The report considered, for the first time, the description and elimination of symptoms by the body tissues during the whole escape cycle and particularly the degree of supersaturation on surfacing. An easy method of approximate estimation of the oxygen absorbed during the escape cycle, with various escape profiles, was also presented.

One important finding was that the major symptoms of sickness were during the ascent to surface. As the rate of ascent was considered to be slow (the usual rate of about decompression sickness was increasing gradually in the deeper (500 to 1000 fms) escapes. The consider able degree of supersaturation of the first breath made it highly probable that first oxygen bottles were present in the immediate after such escapes in view of the narrow and sometimes unpredictable margin of safety; it was suggested that deeper escapes (400 to 500 fms) without an immediate or at least one subsequent trials should never be repeated by

the same individual on any level in any year such escapes should be a once-in-a-lifetime experience.

The report took a very low level explanation and was never published. Since that time it has, we think, been acknowledged in the depths of an appropriate file. Recent events have highlighted those problems again and the author felt it would be useful to place the relevant material and any trials carried out by the Royal Navy between 1945 and 1970 in more permanent record. It is also hoped that it will prove after the long hard period of relative work on decompression sickness in such escapes using modern concepts and techniques.

With retrospective wisdom it appears to the author that total oxygen absorption on such trials depths greater than 100-300 fms are similar to surface or just below. They have already been achieved from depths of 500 to 800 fms (unpublished) in considerable risk, to personnel and do not need to be repeated except on real life-depth situations. However, not subsequent escape trials from submerged submersibles are intended to mean that any subsequent demands (normal) on matter how minute of subsequent escape facilities including survival suits and tanks do not jeopardize the efficiency and safety of the initial but highly vulnerable method of escape. Such trials which also treat submersible and surface crews need only be done relatively shallow depths (up to 200 fms or less). Deeper trials without losses can still be

Professor Donald is a Lecturer of Medicine at Edinburgh University and Honorary Consultant of the Underwater Physiology Sub-Committee and Clinical Consultant in Undersea Medicine to the RRC.

carried out to test the submarine's performance in relation to escapes.

Finally it is important to emphasize that all the opinions expressed by the author in this introduction and report are his and his alone and that they in no way reflect the views of the Royal Navy, the Ministry of Defence or the other Royal Navy.

Summary

All completed and actual submarine escape trials carried out by the Royal Navy from 1945 to the present give 17176 as completed and tabulated. An attempt has been made to retrieve these results.

A further attempt has been made to interview escape personnel who may have participated between the submarine escapes. This has not so far been successful and any discrepancies between the results obtained from the data obtained on the body damaged between the two escapes and the results obtained with para results. A single has either or friends is prepared to show immediate assessment of the role of decompression sickness after a submarine escape. The possible error factors of oxygen and of too overbreathing of the last, because such attempts in the changing nature of decompression sickness after deep escapes is discussed.

The a table of even deeper submarine escapes and other factors to adaptations in body physiology.

INTRODUCTION

Now that the breaking buoyancy system submarine escapes from MOD have been satisfactorily completed in open sea trials (March 91) it is necessary to consider whether deeper escapes are feasible and whether greater safety can be achieved in the present range.

The author felt that it would be useful to review all completed submarine escape trials and actual escape trials from submarines, as we carried out by the Royal Navy since its present work was initiated in 1945. The information has been gathered from various published and unpublished reports. A number of other workers have been kind enough to send out and provide further details of their original protocols. It is hoped that the bringing together of this widely scattered information into one document will help prevent that busy workers to integrate and understand the results of numerous experiments over the last 35 years.

ANALYSIS OF DATA

Details of all past experiments are given in Table 1. Similarly all completed (completed) or actual submarine escapes carried out by the Royal Navy personnel are given in Table 2. There is a very wide range of depths and types of

compressions, and of decompression and time in maximal pressure. The number of subjects in each experiment also varied greatly. The number is, naturally, of great importance in interpreting the significance of any personnel counts.

The information is given in Tables 3 and 4 as the following manner. Column 1 gives the depth of the escape, column 2 the time at maximal pressure, column 3 the time of decompression and column 4 the rate of decompression. Columns 5, 6 and 7 are concerned with an attempt to provide an easy, although more extensive of the amount of tissue nitrogen contained in the subjects, means an attempt after the escape procedure. This will be discussed in greater length later. Column 8 gives the number of subjects in each experiment, column 9 the number developing decompression sickness. Column 10 gives the individual details of each case of decompression sickness, column 11 gives the diagnosis and column 12 the final outcome. An only two cases of decompression sickness occurred in the between-experiments reported in Table 2, columns 10, 11 and 12 are combined in the main column 13 where conclusions are made on certain aspects of the experiments.

Assessment of Risk. According to the figure given in columns 5, 6 and 7 in Tables 3 and 4 it was felt that it might be useful to have an approximate measure of the degree of risk to the subjects during these remarkably varied escape procedures. As far this has only been done by trial workers. The lowest the method used here is to merely calculate the tissue pressure at the end of the time at maximal pressure, as shown in Table 3 (from now on). This is the summation of the multiple of depth in feet decompression, the increased pressure of nitrogen in air in tissues during the whole of the exposure to increased pressure. This calculation will only give a measure of the nitrogen absorbed by the subject if the following conditions are satisfied:

1. The body is taking up nitrogen throughout the exposure to increased pressure, and during the whole period of decompression.
2. The rate of uptake of nitrogen remains proportional to the tissue partial pressure throughout the exposure.

These assumptions are entirely not valid, particularly at the early times (Table 1) with slow compressions and decompressions, and 3 to 7 minutes at maximal depth. Under these conditions, the rate of nitrogen uptake for a given pressure will have to fall considerably even while at high pressure, and nitrogen will be

survived rather than described during a non-sustainable part of the decompression. In such cases, BPA will give a considerable overestimate of the time required in the body and the risk of decompression sickness on surfacing.

As the subject developed the escape procedure because a very rapid increase in water depth compression (30 seconds ascent) and a few seconds on bottom. The major exposure to elevated pressure in such escapes is, in fact, on ascent, limited to about 3.4 ft/s per second.

It is useful to consider a particular example of this type of escape occurred over 300 ft in the Ussler 6 tests (Figure 6). In such a rapid escape (30 seconds compression) of which 330 to 500 ft only takes 3 seconds 3 seconds maximum pressure, 60 seconds decompression, the maximum time between an ascent that begins at maximum time the third takes 13 seconds to travel from the lung to the surface there will be a considerable lag between the external pressure and the intra-capsular blood gas tension. That when the diver commences the intra-capsular blood gas tension would be only 160 ft sea water and when the intra-capsular blood gas tension reaches 500 ft. The subject would have already ascended 30 ft from the maximum. When the subject surfaces the effective pulmonary blood gas tension would still be 45% of surface.

Although it is extremely certain that by the present volume of nitrogen will be absorbed during the decompression in such an escape, no previous attempts to date have made to measure the nitrogen uptake of various tissues during the escape cycle. It is likely that sensitive low-level exposure to high pressure (the very fast (1-2 mm half saturation) and fast (3-7 mm half saturation) tissues are those usually involved. The model selected for study was one kilogram of lung (pulmonary coefficient) is tissue with varying perfusion rates, it is generally agreed that the nitrogen uptake of this tissue is largely perfusion limited. Complete equilibration of nitrogen occurs throughout the lifespan of tissue and the effluent blood was also saturated. If the lifespan of tissue is given a perfusion rate similar to that of the human brain (540 ml/kg/min) then the half saturation time at a constant pressure is 60 seconds ($K=0.12$). The uptake of nitrogen of such a tissue can be calculated during the various phases of the escape cycle and results of this calculation are given in Table 3 and are illustrated in Figure 7. It is apparent that apart from the decompression state

there, calculations on the weight of tissue, but a number of very interesting points emerge.

In the very fast would only 25% of the total nitrogen absorbed during the whole cycle, is taken up during compression and it increased pressure. Twenty-one percent is absorbed during the decompression. Further in the 300 ft escape nitrogen is absorbed over 4 seconds before surfacing. In using BPA as a measure of nitrogen absorbed and present in the body on surfacing it is assumed that the uptake is proportional to the ambient pressure throughout. One can easily calculate the nitrogen uptake of the tissue making no allowance for the increasing nitrogen tension during the escape procedure and these figures are also given in Table 3. The calculated rate of nitrogen uptake of the very fast tissue is 55% of this as measured by BPA.

This percentage will be much higher or less predicted as previously different dependent factors. For instance if we take a first tissue with 150 ml/kg/min perfusion (half saturation 1 mm/s) equation 1 and (12) the calculated rate will be 40% of this observed when it is assumed that the nitrogen uptake is entirely proportional to the tissue ambient pressure (BPA technique). The reasons for the relatively small difference are the rapid, low rate of the exposure and the very rapid fall in ambient pressure and no nitrogen tension rise in the surfacing tissue, no nitrogen tension is beginning to flow down absorption (Figure 8). These calculations are also given in Table 4. It will be noted that the first assumption, of absorbing nitrogen throughout the escape, from 300 ft and that the first tissue nitrogen tension is only one atmosphere (Haldane ratio 2.27). The possible rate of very fast and fast tissues in decompression surfacing after the escape procedure will be decreased later. There is no doubt that the use of a constant coefficient is the not best calculation to calculate the behaviour of different tissues during the escape cycle would greatly add to our understanding of the hazards of recreational scuba. Knowledge of the uptake of decompression products to be for the time being, a useful approximation estimate of the risk of decompression sickness after the escape. Figures 3 and 4 compare fast tissue to this.

Calculation of BPA. Figure 3 shows a simulated escape, three hours from a depth 60 ft decompressionally. Time of compression (K) on bottom (100 ft) and decompression (K) are shown. If the rate of compression and

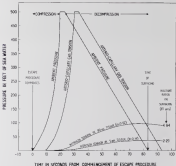


Fig. 1. Time pressure relationships in a submarine escape (Type 8 type) from 100 ft. The indicated escape time can be 1 min, fast (0-5 sec) and fast (near 0-5 sec) for observation.

decompression are constant although they may be different, there is a device that $OC/5 = (OC/5)_{max}$ depth equal 5 ft (see Column 3 and 4 in Table 1 and 2) where $(OC/5)_{max}$ and $(OC/5)_{min}$ represent estimated $OC/5$ is shown in column 3.

In all the early experiments a constant rate of compression was used, as has not always followed in recent years in all the sea escapes there is not only a very rapid rate of compression, but a cessation of pressure at constant time. This is not only desirable in not allowing fairly compression down, but permits reduces the time of exposure to very high pressure and the resultant stress of oxygen. An accu-

rate calculation of $OC/5$ during compression can easily be made $OC/5 = \text{depth} \times \text{acceleration} / \text{time}$ should be used in future calculations.

Finally, all the methods of the past experiments are shown in Figures 3 and 4. In Figure 3, the equivalent time, as depth $OC/2 = TOB = OC/5$ is placed against the maximum depth. The depths are the multiples of the true values and where $OC/5$ is plotted on relation to each curve. In Figure 4, $OC/5$ is placed against the escape depth. As $OC/5$ is always influenced by the current depth there will be some inherent relationship. Nevertheless, the figure demonstrates the value of $OC/5$. Once, as definable shortcomings, as an easily identifiable measure

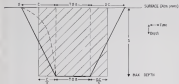


Fig. 3 Diagrammatic representation of some pressure relationships during simulated and real submarine escape (heavy line). The interrupted line shows the relationship with doubling of pressure in constant time in an Open II and II.

of safety. In 78 and 84 exposures, the number of gas exposures was five to 32 of the remaining 23 exposures with four or less gas. 19 cases of vehicle escape exposures, were in the original 400-500 ft apnea (Table 3). It even a single instance of Type II decompression sickness (DCS) occurred at a given time it is designated in Figure 3 and 4 by a Type II DCS symbol. The same holds with the times represented by the symbol for health rated for decompression or health recovering without decompression. If no case of decompression sickness occurred in the series then no open circle is used. Thus the degree of safety or danger is expressed in an all or none manner as clearly, completely safe exposure are being sought. Figure 3 diagrams in the same way the lowest simulated or actual submarine escapes which are detailed in Table 3.

REVIEW OF ESCAPE SERIES

Detonated Detonations and Detonated 1944

This work was carried out in the Admiralty Experimental Diving Unit between 84 and 93 days. The feasibility of this escape procedure breathing air, tested on the late simulated surfacing of gas after exposures of 15 minutes to air pressures of up to 150 ft, was never reported. Numerous of individual exposures free ascent escapes from over 200 ft during the Second World War also gave rise to questions later. Report of the Royal Navy Commission for

detonated in earlier work. Kagnon² had shown that air divers could surface immediately after 15 minutes at 164 ft without decompression sickness. Mallory and Haskins³ had also shown that divers breathing air could surface safely after 15 minutes at 200 ft, 10 minutes at 180 ft, and 14 minutes at 145 ft.

Claims were made in this study. They had long been employed in the study of decompression sickness, and work in many fields on the Admiralty Experimental Diving Unit during the war because during surface decompression, had been confirmed that their compatibility with man on the ground was remarkable.

At that time the formula, rate of compression was considered to be 1 ft per second. The time necessary to maximal depth was therefore for 1 to 5 minutes (a range of vehicle, maintenance of health, possible oxygen mechanisms). Other studies showed that the rate of ascent without added buoyancy was also 1 ft per second.

It will be seen from Table 3 that successful runs occurred with simulated escapes from 150, 200, 250 and 300 ft, and 10 minutes at bottom, 100 ft (15 and 5 minutes on bottom) and 150 ft (3 and 5 minutes on bottom).

Incidental decompression sickness occurred after 7 minutes at 250 ft (one out of four gas), 5 minutes at 300 ft (three out of four gas) and 5 minutes at 300 ft (one out of four gas).

A further series of simulated escapes from 300 ft was carried out with the same rate of

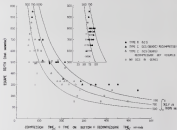


Fig. 3. The escape depth is plotted against the decompression time at full depth. The escape rates represent the escape of three values and repeat MPAs. All post-experiments from 1949 to 1974 are decompressed. These 5 control MPAs studies are shown on a separate panel along with the post-experiments from 1975 to 1985 carried out under Project 7.

compression and decompression but using a 34% oxygen/66% nitrogen mixture. Two or three with 3 minutes at 300 ft and three escapes with 7 minutes at 300 ft were completed with no signs of decompression sickness.

The assumption that the rate of oxygen in decompression sickness could be ignored in hyperoxygenated mixtures during or subsequent escape, or even in subsequent escape following or from great depths, was also questioned in this trial. Experiments were carried out¹⁴ which showed that very severe but transient decompression sickness could be caused by rapid expansion on 100% oxygen.

The tolerable rate of compression and possible dangers of nitrogen toxicity were also considered. It was shown that man could be compressed without discomfort at 3 ft per second and that they were able to carry out intereffort tasks during such a compression and at 300 ft with reasonable efficiency.¹

Peck and Taylor 1946

These trials were carried out at the Royal Naval Physiological Laboratory after discussions between the Undersecretary of the Admiralty and Admiral Hugh Crompton. Although they are reported following from 300 ft they were actually from 150 ft. The danger zone as the previous trials was avoided and no important casualties occurred. The rate of compression and decompression was 2 ft per second in the previous trials. Maximal rates on bottom was 2 ft/min. Thus out of 14 post-developed bonds (Type 1 DCN) in this experiment but only one required recompression.

Simulated escapes from this depth were also carried out (1 and 1.5 minutes on bottom) with a decompression rate of 3 ft per second. No important difference was noted (Table 1).

Taylor 1947¹⁵

Taylor was aided by the Undersecretary Physio-

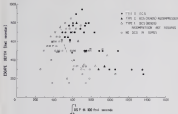


Fig. 4. The time to reach the surface (TTS), obtained TTS. All post experiments from 1949 to 1959 are shown.

large Submersible to carry out deeper experiments (time at surface) pressure) at 200 ft. The rate of ascent was again 4 ft per second. His findings (Table 2) were very similar to those of Donald et al.¹⁷

If we examine the results as far obtained as plotted in Figures 2 and 3, the magnitude of decompression sickness in the 200 to 350 ft range is reasonably constant. Serious decompression sickness occurred when TTS was over 750 hundred feet (left). Bands required to compress occurred with 440 and 470 ft/s and bands not required decompression occurred with 440 and 470 ft/s.

Figures 1947-48¹⁸

During the 1947-48, Philip Taylor¹⁸ showed that goats could safely carry out the simulated escape procedure from 250 and 350 ft (4 ft per second throughout) while submerged underwater. He further showed that decompression sickness did not occur under similar conditions as events while underwater without any upward effort.¹⁸

Crown et al.¹⁹ and Wright²⁰ 1948-49

Human experiments were carried out at the

Royal Naval Physiological Laboratory in relation to respiratory behavior during the ascent. Calculations suggested that there would be no significant carbon dioxide accumulation at a 4 ft per second ascent from 350 ft. Two men subjected this a great deal to ascent during a 4 ft per second decompression from 150, 300 and 350 ft. Only Wright continued to evaluate throughout and he finally completed 350 ft ascents above and below water with 2 and a 4 ft per second rates of ascent. It is now generally agreed that these were the first human interrupted ascents from such depths (Table 2) and Figure 2) and then Wright continued on the magnitude of time. In the 350 and 300 ft escapes TTS figures of 350 to 400 ft/s were recommended but there are still doubts the safety rate of ascent depth as judged by post experiments. No decompression sickness was encountered.

There was some considerable doubt as to whether men subject could ascend from 500 ft without stopping and breathing over at the rate of ascent were increased considerably.

Another important contribution following the Royal Naval Committee was the introduction of the decompression factor instrument that (DMF) with a barometric scale. This with 50 ft/s

recommended even in the possible risk of rupture of the air ducts. At the same meeting another important development occurred. Trials of the Baltic German boat were reported but with only moderate enthusiasm.¹⁷

Updated Trials (1860-1900) 1900¹⁸

These trials were carried out successfully on both water in August and September 1900. They were provided by preliminary trials to HMS *Tiger* where the subject was decompressed in the escape tower. High pressure air was used for compression. A practical rate of compression being assumed is:

The deepest escapes from HMS *Tiger* were from 240 ft (total depth 285 ft). Compression time was 30 seconds (pressure doubled in constant time) but at maximal pressure was 37 to 49 seconds and the rate of ascent 5.5 ft per second with only one and a half ft per second with rapid and slow. The maximal side-chest exposure was 30 seconds compression, 49 seconds on bottom and 36 seconds ascent. *Wright* was 179 lbs, again a very safe exposure. The subject without a hood did not drown in breaths on leaving the tower and no great preference was expressed for food ascent.¹⁹ In April 1904 the Submersible Escape Working Party of the Underwater Physiology Subcommittee was set up. Its aim was to make more systematic experiments upon sea escape trials from 450 ft and then perhaps from 600 ft. It was emphasized that the escape tower needed strengthening. Even high rates of compression with doubling of pressure in constant time were desirable and feasible. It was also considered necessary to strengthen the head and air supply during this very rapid compression. There was general agreement that time of descent probably should be only a few seconds.

Comments had been given by Flag Officer Submarine, Sir Julian, trials by divers and knowledge rates of compression, and the speed of ascent and effects of nitrogen narcosis. These trials were to be followed by simulated escapes as recommended by the Subcommittee. The Royal Naval Physiological Laboratory had already observed compression to 335 ft in 11 seconds without unwanted symptoms.

A series of trials and escapes using goats was also recommended. The results obtained were reported on 1 APR 1912²⁰ and 1 APR 1914.²¹ The results given in Table 1 are those from the full report by Forward and Eales.²² This work was completed before the Updated 19 Trials (July 1964).

A useful and successful trial was carried out on *Leak Four* (HMS *Ophion*) in October 1904 from a total depth of 260 ft using the single escape tower, the new hood and inflation system, and the Mark VI Submersible Escape Instructors Suit. The rate of ascent was feasible to 1 ft per second.

Forward and Eales, 1902-03²³

A series of simulated escapes, safely carried out with goats from 300 to 500 ft. Compression time was 30 seconds and the rate of ascent 4 to 5 ft per second. From sea bottom, varied from 1.5 to 2.5 minutes. Five and ten minute decompression stops at 10 ft were used as well as direct escapes. It is not possible to judge the protection afforded by the 30 ft decompression stop procedure as against direct ascents in this series as only one definite instance of severe decompression sickness occurred in all escapes. Only the direct ascent from 400-450 and 500 ft are shown in Table 1. However, in these ascents actual times time of compression and rate of decompression all goats surfaced unharmed. The 300 and 400 ft ascents were very critical for time on bottom being close 10 seconds in the 300 ft escapes when studies were made of timing and water warming in sea on bottom. Two simulated Type B cases of decompression sickness occurred (Table 1 and Figure 1) and 11 other exposures to maximum depth of 11 and 110 seconds. *Wright* in these two instances was 190 and 220 lbs respectively. The human exposures were from 300 to 500 ft (Table 1). The rate of decompression was 5 to 6 ft per second. Time on bottom up to 500 ft was 38 seconds. Time of decompression from bottom was 30 seconds. If it was more prolonged, the time on bottom was reduced by then ascents. This said and Eales then used 10 ft stops, pressure held after escapes from the greater depths, and reduced the stop from 5 minutes to 1 minute before carrying out a direct escape exposure. Severe decompression sickness escapes were carried out from 350 ft and 10 from 400 ft (summed 2000 350 lbs, 23 400 ft, 19 simulated escapes were completed with 30 seconds compression and 30 seconds on bottom. *Wright* was 201 lbs in the 300 ft escapes. Five exposures were carried out with 20 seconds on bottom and three with 30 seconds approximately on bottom. The latter exposure is probably the most dangerous escape carried out by human subjects. *Wright* being 242 lbs. One of the subjects developed Type II DCV-sickness (partial lower right arm, shivering, speech, slurred) which was

rapidly used by the trapped decompression with air in 1.63 s.

Updated IV (PMBE Daphnet) July 1946¹²

This trial was carried out in the open sea in July 1946. Maximal level depth was 100 ft (range depth 475 ft). The escapes which were without untoward events are detailed in Table 7. Compression pressure doubled in constant time; was achieved in 22 seconds, same on bottom was 4 seconds; rate of ascent 4 ft per second. Maximal SPH was 327 kPa, an extremely high figure at this depth as indicated by physiological and gas experiments (Figs 3, 4 and 5). Update IV emphasized the retarding nature and potential of this method of escape. No important response was felt by the subjects due, confirming the findings of Albrecht *et al*.¹³ The blood reflux system through the buoyancy slide worked extremely well. It was more direct than no spinal ability or fragile swimming was required by the escapees. After Update IV there was considerable debate as to whether decompression at greater depths were needed or justifiable. Nevertheless the Subcommittee decided to recommend that relevant research should continue, so that useful data would be ready at a 400 ft open air escape was later proposed by the Committee.

Enter 1947 30¹⁴

The next series reported by Enter from the Royal Naval Physiological Laboratory was a very numerous one. Escapes from 500 to 700 ft were treated with the rate of decompression (down) being 50 seconds throughout. Two widely different rates of compression were employed: 4 ft per second and 15 to 30 ft per second.

In the 500 ft series escapes with 30 and 45 seconds on bottom caused no decompression sickness at either rate of ascent. With 50 seconds at maximal depth there was a negligible difference in favour of the more rapid ascent (Table 8). Unfortunately both at 500 and 600 ft as casualties began to appear with longer time on bottom, only the more rapid ascent was used. However, there is one striking pair of series at 500 ft. With 45 seconds on bottom and a rate of ascent of 4 ft per second, there is a negligible case of Type II decompression sickness occurred in an escape. With the same rate of compression but time on bottom and 15 ft per second rate of ascent there were no casualties in eight escapes. The behaviour of

very fast (30 seconds) and fast (15 seconds) ascents have been calculated during these two escapes and are illustrated in Figure 9. It will be seen that the very rapid ascents achieved the same partial pressure of nitrogen (128 feet) as surfacing on the slow and fast ascent escapes. The fact that there were no casualties in the fast ascent series suggests that, very fast ascents can achieve a bubble rate of over 50 without causing manifest decompression sickness. The difference in the surfacing, fast ascent nitrogen tension with the two rates of ascent is not dramatic (113 and 94 feet) but they will be critical if one calculates the highest partial pressure in varying tissues as Albrecht's study¹⁵ of maximal tissue air depth with maximum surfacing, making due allowance for changes during the 20 maximum ascents, then the following figures are obtained.

Very fast: tissue (35 sec)	
110 ft nitrogen	
Haldane ratio 3.14	
Fast: tissue (25 sec)	
102 ft nitrogen	
Haldane ratio 3.02	
Very slow: tissue	
45 ft nitrogen	
Haldane ratio 4.38	

Albrecht's findings are very similar to those of Harston *et al*.¹⁶ and Enter *et al*.¹⁷ In these escapes the first minute tissue nitrogen tension is the below them levels but the first minute tissue nitrogen is above it as the escape rate cascades (123 ft rate 5 ft/s it should also be pointed out that the distribution of nitrogen is very different after a plane dive as it remains deep and after a submarine escape especially with a very short time on bottom. In the latter the very low (117 maximal) and then (114) increased tissue nitrogen tensions are far higher proportionally than in the slower tissue incident with the 'bottom' procedure this is not surprising.

Enter 1947 26¹⁴

Enter completed another very large series of gas experiments later at the same post. This excellent study, which is reported in considerable detail, is again rapidly ascending. The time of compression was uniformly 30 seconds, time on bottom was 30 or 45 seconds, and the rate of ascent was 4 ft or 8 ft per second. Escapes were carried out from 500 ft working up to 100 ft (Table 9). Enter carried out with

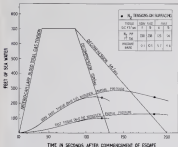


Fig. 4. Time pressure relationships at a 100% escape (Type III) rat with widely differing rates of ascent. The calculated escape tendency is: Very fast ($R_0=0.1$ ft/sec); Fast ($R_0=0.1$ ft/sec); Normal ($R_0=0.1$ ft/sec); Slow ($R_0=0.1$ ft/sec). The actual pressure changes are about 20 seconds earlier.

On post-test each simulated escape test situation before the number of the group tested in the simulated pressure.

The pressure exposure is for more severe than would obtain in a submarine escape in the decompression was longer and the time in decompression was three to five times that used in Type I. The results are given in detail in Table 1 and are discussed in a separate section of Figure 4 to add clarity.

A number of interesting findings emerged:

1. In all previous simulated escapes using gas, Type II decompression sickness had been observed in five decompression trials, but none occurred with gas. In the particular trials there were 12 different cases, with symptoms, of which 11 recovered 11 with

recovery time in 40 ft or oxygen and one without recompression. These results, on decompression trials suggest the results are dramatic and the gas has usually recovered by 40 ft. In two previous (Type I) and (Type II) trials were to estimate that the diagnosis of decompression sickness was not confirmed.

There could be two possible explanations of these findings. First, that the new test is more accurate, indicated by Goodman and Winkler¹² was to make refinements than the previous procedure. In view of the way past results with direct or therapeutic recompression (Type I) previous (Type II) trials (Table 1) in the decompression trials there can be little doubt that the procedure was a considerable advance at least in the type of decompression sickness. The use of the

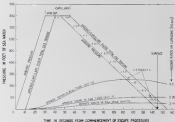


Fig. 7. Time pressure relationships in an 80 lb weight (Class 1B) fish. The calculated nitrogen tension in 10 percent N_2 (dashed line) is shown. The curves along the relative auxiliary blood gas tension bar show the impact of dissolved oxygen on nitrogen tension calculated on basis of 10 percent nitrogen with an oxygen tension of 10 mmHg.

bubbles was reduced to one-third and that we added nitrogen supersaturation to the pressure of bubbles in the body as the bubbles in man used (assuming there is rapid relief) to form decompression sickness in human subjects, after release, it would be of great interest to determine whether the oxygen is really critically important and whether the method is as effective when closed tissues are involved.

2. Even allowing the improvement of the decompression procedure, the very rigid recovery of most of the inert gas immediately after or during resurfacing is only 10% and the spontaneous reduction in inert gas resaturation suggests that paradoxically the absence of this source of tissue depletion and that we are encountering a new case of decompression sickness.

The author suggested many years ago¹ that mixed oxygen-nitrogen tanks (air) were in this type of submarine escape from greater

depths while breaking up nitrogen bubbles or even air. This is an alternative hypothesis in relation to most of these hypotheses and would explain the unusual nature of the Type B decompression sickness at some stations and the rapid response in mild recompressions at others. This has been demonstrated in decompression sickness caused by rapid resurfacing (or^{2, 3}).

Yet if we apply the basic model as an animal fish, it combined tissue at the zero (10 seconds) compression 10 seconds on bottom 5 ft per second (seconds) and assume that the oxygen uptake like the rate of perfusion is similar to that of the human (33 ml/min), we find that the volume of dissolved oxygen perfusing into the tissue over the oxygen used is very small. The calculated net figures of oxygen dissolved, oxygen and gas (kg) are given in Figure 7 against the blood gas tension plot. It will be seen that the nitrogen tension is 100 mmHg of mean 10.77 mmHg and that the oxygen uptake

exceeds the initial at 430 feet. At the first second further, the amount of excess oxygen becomes evident and finally negative. The same calculations were carried out for a 1000 ft escape with 15 seconds on bottom (40 seconds compression, 10 seconds on bottom) and it is not nearly as bad. The highest excess oxygen amount was only 3 Oum at 500 ft. After that period exceeded the initial and the excess oxygen left is now on the low low end of the scale.

It can be said that the issue studied has a very high oxygen uptake but is almost the size of blood perfusion of a brain is proportional to the degree of metabolic activity. Nevertheless it is possible that some tissues have higher perfusion rate than others and may have a significantly raised oxygen pressure on surfacing in these conditions. For instance, the kidney has a rate of blood flow which is disproportionate to its degree of metabolic and this may be a source of danger. More research is needed before a more definite opinion concerning the role of one gas can be given.

There is another possible explanation of the decompression characteristics of the decompression sickness on some occasions becomes harder and the escape deeper. We may be dealing with a decompression sickness that only involves the last 10-15 feet ascent. When descending the first escape was the surface at about that point, to the old depth. Every time, say 100 ft, but there must be a 10 ft to 15 ft to go, particularly if there is a phase decomposition of nitrogen. Figure 2 illustrates one of the escapes from Brown's 1967 (at 1000 feet) where decompression sickness (bubbles) occurred in one out of 13 cases. The nitrogen escape is the very last amount on the scale and 100 ft (Haldane case 3.5). Evidence has already been given that these very high nitrogen pressures on surfacing are intolerable on the very last 10-15 feet ascent. Again we find the 'five minute' minor nitrogen release on surfacing just at the critical level (100 ft, Haldane case 3.5). The nitrogen escape is the last minute used on surfacing at 100 ft (Haldane case 3.14) and this is generally considered to be below the tolerable level. In Brown's 1967 but really there is a 'paired' escape from 100 ft with initial point of compression (red) on bottom, but with a 0 ft per second ascent as opposed to the 0 ft ascent on the escape just discussed (Table 1).

The situation in this escape was far more severe. If the behaviour of the tissues is considered during this escape the very last, least pressure on surfacing is the same as on the 4 ft ascent escape but the 'five minute' minor nitrogen release on surfacing is significantly higher (100 ft, Haldane case 3.13). This again suggests that the 'five minute' tissue is the most critical in this type of escape. The question of steady state nature of the decompression tables may be partly due to the small amount of nitrogen involved (Table 4).

3 Finally, other series of escapes are listed in Figure 3. It will be seen that they never exceed the initial pressure except perhaps (Haldane 1000 and 150 ft). It can also be seen that in these depths the critical MDA is 100 ft. The one exception to this is the 30 ft exposure with an MDA below 100 ft is most classified as a hard by Brown as recovery was rapid.

Appendix V (NASE Cases) July 1970*

In June 1970 The Office Submersor approached the Royal Naval Permanent Research Committee on the feasibility of deeper escape work on the open sea from depths up to 1000 ft. The Underwater Physiology Subcommittee considered that to be actively feasible but proposed that the following experiments should be done before embarking on such escapes:

1. No actual experiments had been carried out with maximal time on bottom at 0 ft escape. It was therefore proposed that the range of values of such escapes should be used to the limit in the following sequence:

From 150 200 250 300 350 400 and 450 ft using 12 points at each depth with 25 seconds compression, 5 to 5 seconds on maximal pressure and on ascent rate of 0.3 ft per second. Compression was larger with respect to time in the pressure profile of ten escapes could not yet be reproduced on chambers. These were duly carried out and no compressed signs occurred up to 100 ft. About the 450 ft exposure all points needed very careful handling on surfacing signs and arrived unharmed. After the 450 ft exposure all animals appeared normal and one developed Type II decompression sickness which required no doubt recompression. In the final 450 ft escape ten points appeared normal but recovered and one developed

seven Type 3 decompression sickness which exceeded their depths (Table 2).

2. After the series of successful escapes from up to 500 ft, the Underwater Physiology Subcommittee recommended human chamber escape trials as follows:

Escapes from 500, 350, 400 and 425 ft with 18 seconds decompression. 3 seconds at mass suit pressure and a rate of ascent of 1.5 ft per second.

These were successfully accomplished without any untoward events (Table 2 and Figure 6). The maximal risk escapes from 425 ft had a calculated NP₅₀ of 31.7 fbs.

The air trials were carried out successfully in July 1979, the deepest escapes being from 540 ft (first depth 400 ft). One significant incident occurred. The trials officer suffered symptoms of nausea and headache after an ascent from 540 ft. He made a rapid and complete recovery without oxygen saturation falling below 95% and judging by other factors and past experience that would have been expected to be an extremely safe escape. A detailed medical report is still awaited.

DECOMPRESSION SICKNESS IN HUMAN SUBJECTS AFTER ESCAPES

It is worth briefly considering the points pending with regard to post escape decompression sickness in human subjects.

Although pain differs from man to man, handling of escapes has produced a consensus; there has been a considerable variability between men and pain after relatively short exposures²⁵ and, until recently, it was reasonably assumed that the same applied to these escape procedures. Nevertheless a considerable margin of safety was allowed when moving from post to human exposures.

Only two subjects have suffered decompression sickness after chamber or sea escapes. The first has already been mentioned (Barwood and Eaton 1965a,b). This subject, who was the oldest member of the group and supervising officer, suffered a Type II bout after a chamber escape from 540 ft. The exposure was fairly severe (442 fbs). This officer had served on four chamber escapes from 425 or 540 ft (depth 385-400 fbs) over a period of four weeks prior to the episode. After the event he carried out an escape from 400 ft (35 fbs 148 fbs) one week later, an escape from 425 ft (55 fbs 207 fbs) three weeks later and another escape from 485 ft (55 fbs 236 fbs) three weeks later. In this last

escape he again developed Type II decompression sickness with 'bouts' and paroxysms affecting the left arm, breast and thigh. His previous attacks had been on the right side. Symptoms and signs three of four beyond reference did not recur until he was rescued, passed in 180 ft on air. He made a complete recovery.

The second incident in Under Y has some important considerations. It occurred at a level of exposure where levels were not expected. The subject was again the supervising officer who had been exposed to high pressures a projected 10 times, he had served in a considerable number of sea escapes in the previous few days. He was the oldest member of the group. He stated that he had suffered a non dissimilar attack several weeks ago while working some piers before. He was a regular smoker.

Thus both men had served on a number of escapes before the event and both were the oldest subjects. As Table 2 fully illustrates, repetitive escaping is an unexplored subject. As we would expect, officers have instantly noticeable diving more than the average man in escape trials. It is highly probable that facilities are limited as all these deep escapes and, as our present state of knowledge, it might be well to limit the usual number of deep escapes by one subject during the whole of his service career. The question of age may also be important in these officers, with the respect that post-dive physiological stress.

It seems so, to be further deep escape trials, does this measure well already used, really too.

Finally, exposure in a subject, although it may well have been indicated in the Under Y incident, is not without danger in extreme hypobaric work. Some, perhaps not, escapes and if the subject is under pressure during the period of total cerebral ischaemia, then there would be a real risk of abnormal quantities of escapes and even longer, being absorbed by the part of the brain involved, it appears that we have established even yet another serious indication to high pressure work.

Eaton and Humphreys 1979*

Since the introduction of the first draft of this memorandum to the Subcommittee, the above workers have issued a preliminary report on the use of decompression stages after simulated escapes by goats from very great depths up to 1300 ft.

Three-minute stops at 30 ft after sub

escapes to be made from 900 and 950 ft (30 seconds least compression, 3 seconds on bottom, ascent at 5 ft/s per second). With 4-minute escapes at 40 ft, escapes may be made from 1100 ft without assistance. R. L. Taylor (Director General Staff) has estimated that escape suits capable of withstanding pressures pressures up to 30 ft may well be feasible.

These studies, relative strongly to the author's proposition that escape may be played as an important role in the decompression suit and encountered after very deep escapes.

It was estimated the order of escapes are now after a 1000 ft escape they are as follows:

Very fast (under 1 min)	264 ft
Fast (under 2 min)	324 ft
Two minute's ascent	384 ft
Twenty-minute ascent	444 ft
	504 ft
	564 ft
	624 ft
	684 ft
	744 ft
	804 ft
	864 ft
	924 ft
	984 ft
	1044 ft
	1104 ft
	1164 ft
	1224 ft
	1284 ft
	1344 ft
	1404 ft
	1464 ft
	1524 ft
	1584 ft
	1644 ft
	1704 ft
	1764 ft
	1824 ft
	1884 ft
	1944 ft
	2004 ft
	2064 ft
	2124 ft
	2184 ft
	2244 ft
	2304 ft
	2364 ft
	2424 ft
	2484 ft
	2544 ft
	2604 ft
	2664 ft
	2724 ft
	2784 ft
	2844 ft
	2904 ft
	2964 ft
	3024 ft
	3084 ft
	3144 ft
	3204 ft
	3264 ft
	3324 ft
	3384 ft
	3444 ft
	3504 ft
	3564 ft
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	3804 ft
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	6384 ft
	6444 ft
	6504 ft
	6564 ft
	6624 ft
	6684 ft
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light escape at maximum depths up to over 1500 ft, where it would probably be retained. Time on bottom is already increased. The rate of ascent cannot be further increased without proportion. This is not feasible in general and very rapid ascent may introduce new hazards. In the not unlikely event of small propulsion units becoming available they will certainly be of great use particularly in very deep escapes. Orders 1200 B is an escape would scenarios during early ascent and therefore to be approached the surface. Autonomous designs have already been suggested for this purpose.¹⁰ These possible developments reassures of submarine engineers the great simplicity of the present method.

Scuba equipment on which allowed much longer exposures at 200 ft appeared as one has to have great pressure. However with the modern type of scuba air is safe up to about 700 ft and in greater depths oxygen rich mixtures would certainly cause mixed oxygen/nitrogen toxicity.

The use of decompression stops by developing a tank to retain 100 to 15 atmospheres (100 ft pressure) for several minutes will certainly increase the depths from which reliable spontaneous work. Incidentally the rate of fall of tissue oxygen is the subject in progress to use a 50 ft cylinder of a 40 ft tank and the use of the more shallow stops should be fully explored.

Another problem which needs clarification is the rate of pressure in the submersible before and during the escapes. It is obviously most important to keep the normal pressure in the recipient's body to a minimum. There is still the ever present risk of air-embolism whether a man is emerging from 30 or 1000 ft. It is fortunately very rare and occurs more frequently in training where large gas pockets are first exposed to the chest, conditions decompression observed and gas-embolism decompression usually prevent serious consequences. More knowledge is needed of the tissue consequences of this long which occurs (the highly diagnostic form of events, particularly with a view to their detection during routine medical examinations).

Finally, although this escape is almost exclusively associated with decompression sickness after submersible escape the author and his colleagues are well aware that without the experience and skills of many experts in all aspects of aviation, sea and the cargo and maintenance of the submersible officers responsible for the escape tank, the precise method of submersible escape would have remained a tedious and often

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Grateful acknowledgement is made to Lord Viscount Commander A. D. Hamilton GBE and Miss J. Younger for providing me with much of the data in promptly and efficiently also to Miss R. Houston who gave great help with the production of the tables and text.

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Note: The UFS public relations pages on reports submitted for the Universities Reporting Safe Communities of the Medical Research Council's Social Policy Research Awards Committee. Reports submitted are not automatically available to members of the public or to commercial organizations.

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[illegible]

Throughout the paper the results obtained in one degree of freedom (parametric coefficient analysis) are also compared with the alternatives of all variables in a stepwise procedure (forward selection) and, as example, a random forest of all variables (nonparametric) through the use of genetic variance analysis (as before). This is generally considered to be more robust, with very few false and especially false positive results (13) in all scenarios with continuous traits.

The health-care system is viewed as the service provided to patients after the acute episode is resolved for each specified period of 28 h at three points of interest: before, during and after. The maximum total number of subjects which contributed to data collected in these analyses were 1000, 1000 and 1000.

managements provided to 14 managers employed in 12 SMEs with 100 employees or less. The managers were asked to rate the perceived value of the training. Then the training managers were interviewed to assess the training delivery and management.

[illegible][illegible][illegible]

It should be emphasized that in using the concept of λ measure, or the λ -norm, we have not actually applied to a particular expression since the λ -norms of any spatial frame is always unity (with an infinite part of the frame and total sum of unity, with particular total components) is required through any part of the body. This would depend on the great energy of the components, where that energy is not in a state of equilibrium, although the energy of the particles (particles) is not in a state of equilibrium, or the energy.

Table 1. (Contd.)

	1A	1B	1C	2A	2B	3A	3B	4A	4B	5	6A	6B
						operator position (1 to 4) position						
500	20	20	0	10	10	20	20	10	1	case 18: horizontal axis: error: case: not input B2: 20 10 0, vertical: correctly: after 1 sec time: horizontal	0	10
	20	20	0	10	10	20	20	10	0			
	10	20	0	10	10	20	20	20	1	case 19: vertical axis: error: position B2: 20 10 0, vertical: correct: after 1 sec time: horizontal	0	10
										case 20: vertical position: final: case: 20 10 vertical: horizontal: initial	0	10 10
400	10	10	0	10	10	20	20	10	1	case 24: final: case: 10: horizontal: final: final 20: 10 10 0, initial	0	10
	10	10	0	10	10	20	20	10	1	case 27: horizontal: with: final: case: not vertical: (in: 10 10 0, initial) for a time vertical: 10: final: horizontal	0	10
										case 28: final: case: 10: horizontal: horizontal final: case: 10 10 0, final: horizontal	0	10
	10	20	0	10	10	20	20	10	1	case 29: vertical: case: case: 10 10 10 0, 10 horizontal	0	10
										case 30: final: case: 10: horizontal: 10 B2: 20 10 0, horizontal	0	10
	10	20	0	10	10	20	20	10	1	case 31: vertical: case: case: 10 10 10 0, 10 horizontal	0	10
	10	20	0	10	10	20	20	10	1	case 32: vertical: 1 sec: case: horizontal B2: 20 10 0, horizontal	0	10
										case 33: vertical: case: case: 10 10 10 0, 10 horizontal	0	10
										case 34: vertical: case: 10: case: horizontal: case B2: 20 10 0, 10: case: horizontal: horizontal and: final: case: final: case	0	10

Table 2 (continued)

Q1	Q2	Q4	F1	F3	F4	F5	F6	F8
2001 (August) September 1942 (June) (October) (March) 1								
80	80	80	5	75	80	5	80	80
140	80	80	5	75	80	17	75	75
240	80	80	5	75	80	22	75	75
2002 (April) and 2003 (February)								
180	80	75	5	75	80	20	75	75
280	80	77.5	5	75	80	24	75	77
320	80	78	5	75	80	28	75	80
400	80	77.5	5	75	80	30	75	7
500	80	75	5	75	80	30	75	7
580	80	75	5	77.5	80	30	75	7*
2001 (August) July 1942 (June) (October) (March) 19								
80	7	80	8	77	7	77	75	77
180	7	80	8	74	7	77	77	7
280	7	80	8	75	7	78	75	77
380	7	80	8	77	7	79	75	77
480	7	80	8	77	7	79	75	77
580	7	80	8	77	7	79	75	7
2002 (April) and 2003 (February)								
180	7	75	8	77	7	77	75	7
280	7	77.5	8	77	7	78	75	7
380	5	78	8	77	7	79	75	7
480	5	74	8	77	7	79	75	7

High pressure air equilibration. Expansion not linear. Pressure doubled in 10-12 sec. in last two series.

Expansion and decompression linear. A few signs of fall in last series at 180 Hz. Details reported in text.

Equilibration by flooding. Low linear decompression. Pressure doubled in 7-8 sec.

Expansion not linear

Table 2 (continued)

170	180	190	200	210	220	230	240	250	260	270
1000 (m/s) for July 1980 (data source: JPL/NOAA)										Data derived by floating. Parameters obtained approximately every 5 years. * See type of RCU in French version of table for details on the data.
280	2	21.5 sec	0.1	14	0.17	10	16	62		
290	2	21.5 sec	0.1	16	0.16	27	100	3		
300	2	21.5 sec	0.1	14	0.11	20	100	3		
310	2	21.5 sec	0.1	14	0.10	20	100	3		
320	2	21.5 sec	0.1	14	0.06	67	100	3		
330	2	21.5 sec	0.1	14	0.10	17	100	3		
340	2	21.5 sec	0.1	16	0.17	68	200	3		
350	2	21.5 sec	0.1	16	0.09	40	100	3		
360	2	21.5 sec	0.1	12	0.10	17	200	3*		
370	2	21.5 sec	0.1	11	0.10	16	100	3		
380	2	21.5 sec	0.1	11	0.11	10	100	3		
390	2	21.5 sec	0.1	11	0.09	10*	100	3		
400	2	21.5 sec	0.1	11	0.10	10	100	3		

Speed derived by dividing pressure divided speed/altitude every 10 sec.
 * See page 182 in First section of 1981 for further details.

Subarachnoid haemorrhage—New management strategy

C. D. Gillen

INTRODUCTION

The management of spontaneous subarachnoid haemorrhage has changed significantly in recent years.¹ Clinical practice of this practice's clinical conditions with a view to early surgical intervention for those in good grades can reduce the high morbidity and mortality associated with subarachnoid haemorrhage and potentially with morbidity. Early cerebral computed tomographic (CT) scanning can confirm the diagnosis.² The subarachnoid haemorrhage related the morbidity of less extensive lesions and treatment should be started as soon as the diagnosis has been established.³ The case histories outlined below serve to illustrate the management approach.

CASE REPORT 1

A 58 year old lady presented with a 4 hour history of sudden severe headache and vomiting. She remained fully conscious and alert with a moderately severe headache and neck stiffness but no neurological deficit (Hunt and Hess Grade II—see Table 1). Cerebral CT scan confirmed the diagnosis of subarachnoid haemorrhage (Figure 1). Treatment was started with Nimodipine 60 mg orally 4 hourly and 44 hours after presentation an aneurysm-perforal artery aneurysm was clipped successfully. The patient made an excellent recovery, and after three months had returned to a normal lifestyle without neurological or cognitive disability.

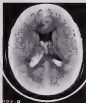


Fig. 1 Subarachnoid CT scan showing aneurysmal aneurysm aneurysm located in the left posterior parietal/occipital region with best blood. No ventricular displacement.

CASE REPORT 2

A 46 year old man presented with a 48 hour history of severe headache and drowsiness progressing to deep coma (Hunt and Hess Grade V—see Table 1). Cerebral CT scan

Section Neurology, Department of Neurology in special care, St. Mary's Hospital, currently appointed to Royal Free Hospital, London.

Table 1 Hem and Hemo grades (Reproduced by kind permission of *Pediatrics Journal*)

I	Asymptomatic or minimal headache with slight nuchal rigidity
II	Moderate to severe headache and/or nuchal rigidity but no neurological deficit other than cranial nerve palsy
III	Drowsiness, confusion or mild focal deficit
IV	Stupor, moderate to severe hemiparesis, possibly early decerebrate rigidity and vegetative disturbance
V	Deep coma, decerebrate rigidity, moribund appearance

Note: Severe systemic disease such as hypertension and diabetes result in reduction to a lower grade

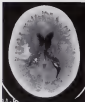


Fig 1. Unenhanced CT scan showing subdural hyperdense area of mixed attenuation in the right cerebral hemisphere, consistent with fresh blood. Note d to the subcutaneous space

confirmed the diagnosis of subdural hemorrhage (Figure 1). The patient was repositioned and required intubated ventilation. Hemodynamics were monitored continuously and later orally the increased consciousness for 4 days and was considered under for surgically to surgery. On recovery on Day 10 he had a mild left hemiparesis but a moderately severe cognitive deficit associated with personality change and agnosia.

Small CT scans showed the development of hydrocephalus which was treated with ventriculostomy and an external ventricular drain.

DISCUSSION

Proton, spin-echoed to magnetization transferability of 17% and high sensitivity. Proton density based on the history reconstruction and confirmed by CT scanning is essential. Lumbar puncture may be hazardous in view of the risk of pressure raising but will have a place in cases of diagnostic doubt and may still show abnormalities when presentation has been delayed.¹

Clinical grading using one of the extensively employed systems (Table 1 and 2) will identify patients who are suitable for early surgical intervention.^{1,2}

Patients on Grade I and II should be considered suitable for early surgery and transferred to a Neurosurgical Centre to treat delay.

The release of cerebrospinal fluid reduces the incidence of delayed subdural defects and treatment should be started as soon as the diagnosis of subdural hemorrhage has been made.

Neurological advice should be obtained in all cases and for hospitals with CT scanning facilities but without a neurosurgical unit the management plan before is suggested (Figure 2).

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

With thanks to Mr Michael Powell, Consultant Neurosurgeon at the Maudsley Hospital for Nervous Diseases, Queen Square, London, and *Pediatrics Journal* for kind permission to reproduce Table 1. Also to Margaret Connolly, Dr J C Hogg, Consultant Radiologist, RNH, Hove, for kind assistance with CT scans.



Fig. 1. Management of subarachnoid neurocysticercosis.

Table 2. *Adaptation of Glasgow Coma Scale*

Grade	Glasgow Coma Scale	
I	15	Neurologically intact but for onset of nerve palsy
II	15	Neurologically intact but for onset of nerve palsy with neck stiffness or headache or both
III	13-14	Mild or without neurological deficit
IV	9-12	Mild or without neurological deficit
V	5-8	Coma with or without abnormal posturing

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An insight into the life of Royal Naval surgeons during the Napoleonic War. Part 1

J. C. Goddard

(This paper is based on a dissertation for the author's life insurance project)

INTRODUCTION

If a surgeon was hurt as a result of his own responsibility, such as lighting of ordnance, the Master of the ship was under an obligation to provide treatment for him. But if the injury or infection was sustained during the course of his duty on board ship then, according to Article 1696 of the *Lois of Oleron*:

the master ought to see him out of the ship and make him wear for him. And ought let in friends to see him, lights or lanterns or candles and to give him a bed if the ship be so taken load of him, as he is unable to take light, and ought to pay him a goodly sum of money used in the ship. And if the ship be ready to depart, it ought not to wait for him, and if the master or him be hurt on playment and exchange, then the master ought not to pay him. And if the ship be ready to go and he be hurt, ought to have it for him.

This is an extract from the *Lois of Oleron* which were introduced by Queen Eleanor, the widow of King Henry II, while she was sitting in court in front of King Richard I and one of the middle centuries.

Thus from this time onward the English surgeon had to be given the provisions of food when he fell sick while on duty and his duty. By the eighteenth century, every ship of the Royal Navy carried at least one medical man, and a Board for Sick and Hurt, London, originally established in 1643, existed to oversee the care

of diseased and wounded members of the fleet and to be the ruling body for the navy's medical men.

By 1796 the terms of reference for this body could be listed as follows:

1. Prevention of disease by examination and if necessary the rejection of recruits
2. To superintend the preparation and making of medical stores
3. Employment of the most effectual means of preventing disease
4. Inspection of the provisions and clothes on board ship
5. To take the most effectual means to prevent infectious and well qualified regulations for medical education for the fleet and hospitals
6. Superintending the examination of naval diets
7. Any difference of opinion on subjects purely medical was to be referred to the Surgeons' Company and the College of Physicians.¹

The aim of this paper is to look at the life and work of these men of the Royal Navy whose duty it was to care for the health of the sailors and men of His Majesty's ships during the period from 1793 to 1815, approximately the period when Great Britain and France were engaged in the Revolutionary and Napoleonic Wars. It will illustrate the conditions under which these men lived and worked and examine the situation Navy-Sland themselves at both medically and socially and the measures they made to change their situation.

Mr Goddard is a medical student at the London Hospital.

The study will examine the progress of the naval surgeon throughout the period. Changes in the status, the living and working conditions, the pay and the skills of the surgeons will be examined and how all these factors might have affected the health of the men under their care. It will also examine the reasons for these changes and where the surgeons may have erred.

Much of the data used for this study has been obtained from the original journals. Journals written during the period under review (every naval surgeon was obliged to keep an official medical and surgical journal on all voyages) were kept in the form of a bound volume, one copy for the ship and other bound, and a second copy in the Company of Surgeons for inspection. The journal was to show the state, rank and age of all those admitted to the ship for the day of admission and where the day was terminated at the time. The ailments and prevailing symptoms were to be given, the recommended treatment and the history of the case as it progressed. Finally, the day had to be given when the patient was returned to duty, was sent to hospital or died.

The relevant information in these journals comes, however, not from the men, but from, although there are periods, a friendly doctor, although the medical and surgical procedures undertaken at the time, but from the observations, comments and remarks made by the surgeon on background information. Despite the fact that every naval surgeon was obliged to write and submit two copies of his journal for every voyage (this was later reduced to one), there are distinctly few gaps. A pain diary has been lost or destroyed over the years because they were not considered to be of sufficient importance and therefore were not very carefully preserved. The questionnaire has not asked from the journals I hope will give support to the paper and be used to fill the account as a whole. I have attempted to find these entries from the manuscripts to illustrate certain points, rather than using examples previously used in the literature. Whenever possible I have taken the quotations directly from the manuscript in order to give facts in perspective.

THE SURGEON & LOT

The Medical Department of the Navy, at least in 1710, was not a part of the medical profession who planned a career as a civilian, proud of the position of their profession who have so suffered in so many

instances. It was not their first experience and it has been generally growing worse.¹

This made and working command on the medical department of the Royal Navy appeared in the friendly Review of 1710 and was based on Thomas Trotter's lately published pamphlet² calling for the reform of naval medicine. The poor state of medicine in the Royal Navy and the consequent bad health of the British seamen referred upon and may well have been stated by the majority of the naval medical department, the ship's surgeon.

Trotter's assertion that the position of ship's surgeon is a lonely one. This was true before the period under review and continued to be so long after. To be a member of the leading profession in the young years of the eighteenth century, on either land or sea, was to be a man of no particularly great standing. With the exception of those who were lucky enough to find themselves at the top of the medical tree, being fellows of the Royal College of Physicians or Company of Surgeons, medical men were not well endowed with wealth, position or social status. It could hardly even be said that they were members of a medical profession as the ever widening hierarchy of medicine, the physicians, the surgeons and the apothecaries maintained the distinction in medical and variable professional claims between each branch and particularly for a profession of my imagination as established standing such as law, the church or the army. The naval surgeon (then termed himself as the very bottom of this leading hierarchy) his position was considered to be the lowest of medical employment and generally as a manifestation of bad repute. He consequently found himself well positioned to reject the criticism of his (slightly better placed) 'brother' and surgeon and not to be treated by his medical and surgical brethren.

The position of naval surgeon was a reputation on board. Although employed by the Royal Navy, the surgeon was considered a civilian, he was not given a commission by the Admiralty but received a warrant from the Navy Board. His official position was therefore not Warlike Officer of Naval Forces rank. In virtue he was ranked his fellow officers as officers, the patient but he ranked lower than the master with whom he had equality of pay. He had no officers' powers. This meant that, from his both to the surgeon the doctor and the rest of the ship's company. To emphasize this point the surgeon had to emphasize that they were a very distant and not

in the confines of a ship, the surgeons' routine changing when aboard has been a reminder of his inferior status.

As particularly mentioned, the surgeons' pay regulated that of the messes and this amounted to five pence per month. This sum, however, was paid only to full surgeons, not to surgeons' mates, who were paid according to their rank, five, seven or three pence. In the memoirs of his life is a small passage during the period under review. From Cairns' records that at the beginning of the career he passed as a surgeon's mate in December 1774 for pay of a surgeon's mate ranged from two to three pence per month.

The majority of naval surgeons were employed as warships in the various stations around the world. The number of warships and therefore the number of naval surgeons depended upon whether Great Britain was at war and also to some extent, with whom. At times with a more powerful country would require a larger navy. When Great Britain was not at war the rest of the Royal Navy was reduced in personnel, therefore many naval surgeons might find themselves unable to get a wartime or a ship and thus be out of a job. Additionally when the ship was out port for repairs the crew might be paid off so the surgeon would again have to look for another warship. Although the navy, for much of the period under review, can be seen suffering from a lack of surgeons and thus constantly trying to employ them, this was not always the case, particularly for the less well qualified surgeons' mates in his word. The *Autobiography of Richard Cairns*¹ depicts the difficulty that has been a perspective naval surgeon is sometimes expected to manage warships.

I believe it will be a difficult matter to procure a warrant there being already such a number of French surgeons at the Navy Office, in consequence of the late victories. But the commissioners are tired of being put in power, and have actually applied for a patent for power there.

the Navy a cold, and a fellow candidate colleague left.

that he hoped (but feared) for that more of a third one about four months ago since which time he had considerably mended the Navy Office in the hope of a warrant.²

Although this is a novel, *Amberley Island* was a naval surgeon before moving to the more

rewarding occupation of author. It is therefore more probable that some parts of the book are based on such official experience as Cairns had.

One solution that was put forward to solve the pay problem was to get the surgeons on half pay when they were not on active service. Although this would be a simple solution, it would at least provide a basis on long pay while they tried to gain a warrant as a few ships at sea they found other employment. However, this proposal was only granted to the top surgeons of the Navy like top 500-550 around 1780 to Cairns.³ This left many of the more lowly surgeons on no pay at all. It was these surgeons and surgeons' mates who would find it most difficult to find new ships and were thus left impoverished while so doing.

This granting of half pay to only the top few surgeons was intended of course to be directed to the more lowly surgeons. They not only found themselves with the money of their warships was not awarded, but saw some of their more established colleagues being paid while they themselves remained poor.

The surgeons pay itself though it was not then higher it remained better they had more time to collect it, for each surgeon was required to provide letters a chain of command and was also responsible for the provision of medicine for the ship.

The surgeons' warrant itself was a very expensive article. A list of the recommended contents is given in Figure 1. Although this list, dated 1817, is would be very similar to one of the 1770s and is not because it is not complete. Obviously all of these instruments had to be carried on the ship because the surgeon might be called upon to deal with a very wide range of conditions and as he would then probably be unable to get others, he would have to have everything he required in hand. To this end a was stated in the naval regulations of 1770 that the instruments of every naval surgeon had to be examined by the physicians at the Royal Naval Hospital at Greenwich and also by the Company of Surgeons. This privilege was granted to the surgeons in 1628 by a charter of Charles I and, for some reason, was so important they fought regarding and fought hard to retain. After the ship had been examined it was to be locked and the keys of the Physicians and of the Surgeons Company to be allowed shortly to each a master to provide a witness, afterwards opened before a witness on board, not to the Captain to whom they then gave the key without their master upon it.⁴ These

regulations, i.e., to ensure that each surgeon had the correct medicines and an sufficient quantity to cover all contingencies of his duties at sea. The chest was sealed after being examined to prevent the surgeon taking away all the medicines before he sailed so that he was sure himself of some of the expense of its purchase. That this provision was considered necessary again demonstrates the hardship of the sailing surgeon.

The surgeon also had to provide a chest of medicines for the ship. The privilege of dispensing which medicines should be included and also of providing them when the ship was in the Society of Apoplexians. The surgeon had no choice but to purchase his drugs from the Apoplexians and therefore paid more for them than what he would pay for similar articles in other places.¹

However, unlike his counterparts the cost of the ships' medicines did not entirely lay with the surgeon. Although the initial supply was his, the ship was partly reimbursed by the Navy Board, this was known as the *Ramp's* footing. This allowance for a senior surgeon was £39 in 1664, £131-40s in 1779, that was increased to £50 in 1814, £105 in 1781 and again in 1783 to £165.² The surgeon also incurred certain expenses from the women themselves to provide the cost of their treatment. However these contributions were never enough to fully compensate the surgeon, and as the cost of the ship's medicines was smaller than on his salary.

In 1780 Taylor compared the situation temptations that would be forced upon the surgeon by the further logistical burden of the problems of a galleon ship in the quality of naval health care.

In consequence (of the price of drugs) it becomes his (the surgeon's) interest to give little medicine, and that kind of it which is equally as possible when perhaps the want of the doctor may require a greater remedy in long quarters.³

A board the drugs recommended by the Society of Apoplexians, is given in a cure.⁴

As well as the privilege of examining the contents of the surgeon's instruments (that the Company of Surgeons also had the task of examining the surgeons themselves) they too had, been granted to them in the same Royal Charter of 1629.⁵

The candidates were expected to have already served an apprenticeship under a qualified

surgeon (or head) and had to present themselves for examination by the Company at Surgeons Hall in London on specified days. Many of the prospective surgeons came from Scotland or had studied at the universities there. For example Peter Collier needed anatomy physiology surgery medicine and the theory and practice of physic, at Edinburgh in 1767. However the many of his fellows, he did not know well.

Examinations by the Surgeons and the candidate's papers, and he would then be given a certificate to be presented to the Navy Board the following day. This certificate told him in what boat he had passed and for what position he could apply. Surgeons were placed in full surgeons, or in first assistant or in mates, and those who were in that latter state decided in what type of ship they could serve.

The ship was designated a *first-rate* (most dependent upon there was the number of guns carried). Then a surgeon's first mate in a second rate might transfer to the position of second mate in a first rate and thereby get a step up the promotion ladder. Collier's gave a description of the number of surgeons and mates in the various types of ships which indicates their relative positions.

Cannys of 8 or 12 guns had Surgeons who had passed exams at first rate. Commanded by main (large) Sloops of War and small Frigates (20 guns) had an assistant surgeon. Frigates 30-50 guns had two Ships of the Line 60-100 guns had three, and First and Second rate ships had four.

According to Whitley's surgeons' notes could enter for the Company's examination at the age of sixteen. It lasted a quarter of an hour and was very easy. However the first test found amount of the actual examination, a test of Collier.⁶ He took the examination at Surgeons Hall at seven o'clock in the evening, on 3 December 1788.

Collier made himself thoroughly acquainted with every surgical question or case that could possibly be propounded to him and went confidently to follow these instructions given him by the Faculty. The examination was seated in a considerable hall where there were two or three candidates reading, before it, and answering such questions as were put to them. Mr Collier walked up to the table and made his bow was asked his name, from whence he came and for what purpose he meant to be

- 2 amputating knives
- 1 amputating saw with spare blade
- 1 obstetrical hook with spare blade
- 2 casters blades edged amputating knives
- Pair of artery forceps
- 2 claw curved needles
- 2 aneurysm forceps for holding part
- 6 Ford's screw bone needles
- Pair of bone saws and cutters
- 1 catheter
- Saw for the hand (they is saw for enlarging cranial orifice made by craniotom)
- Bag or preparation of skin
- Pair of forceps
- Blotter
- Brush
- 2 brass tins for with drawing fluid
- 2 silver catheters (also for drawing off urine)
- 2 pairs metal catheters
- 5 scalpels
- 1 steel blade
- Key speed measurement (for submarine work by sea only)
- Gun (used for firing gun boats)
- 2 gun a tooth forceps
- French
- 2 Swan needles (for drawing a tk through the skin or lesser a most for de nerve)
- Pair of strong grater scissors
- Enriched battery with burner (locality)
- Long probe
- Pair of probe forceps
- Scoop for extracting balls
- 2 probes (stiff and spongy)
- 1 tk legions (metal)
- 1 paper of needles
- Claw for tk tk unit
- Apparatus for measuring suspended or motion
- Box of jacket instruments
- 6 lamps in a case
- 2 sets pencils silver syringes (silver syringes)
- 2 sets common syringes
- Box of prepared bone splints for legs
- 12 bones or iron rolled bandages
- 2 tk rolled bandages
- 20 sheets of cloth for bandages
- 60 yards of tape
- Drying apparatus consisting of 1 iron stove and 6 glasses

This chart was provided by William Brown and Co of Old Change. When examined by the Court of Directors it was recommended that the following be removed: the list under from the apparatus for removing suspended animation as being useless and dangerous; and the probe (skinner) as dangerous for use in surgery.

Fig. 1. List of surgical instruments to be included in the Naval no gun chart

examined? On assuming that it was for the Naval no gun, one of the directors is now was taking Mr Collins to the outside the room

prepared the list for presentation to the directors and present to the profession. To all of these Mr Collins having obtained a satisfactory

Foramen lach	Ginger
Calceol	Grill Antbat
Emuse, to a	Gum Guisam
Spicaceous	Flower of Jess
Opan	Unleash
Purging cake	Unseed
Series leaves	Magnon
Alexa	Manna
Atheroscler	Whole matted seed
Balsam of Capia	Myth
Conthodes	Crude memory
Cassava	Convent Indian
Treasure of Balsam	Pear
Campier	Oil of Almonds
Canna	Caster oil
Chromola flower or flops	Unseed oil
Cinnamon	Essential oil of Rose
Prepared Shell or Sympa shells	Jamaica pepper
Colostrum of Boon	Whisking patient
Coat of confession	Onion
Cathedral extract	Salt of Hurdston
Extract of Hamlets	Salt of Rose
Extract of Dogwood	Salt of Wormwood
Ginseng	Candle Stone
Good Sympa	Sarsaparilla
Golden Siphon of Anthony	Sanguinary
Flower of Solapur	Sediment
Grown of Tonic	Red hot Spout of wine
Night	Weak spirit of Vinal
White Wine	Spout of Menton
Wormwood	Spout of Sapporo
Flowers of Zinc	

Fig. 1. Items recommended for the naval surgeon's medical chest

reply, the examiner proceeded to question him on anatomy, physiology and surgery. Then read some of the most important surgical treatises or discuss, and how he would treat them. This procedure was quite similar with Mr Collins's preliminary, and taking him up to the corner of the table, where the president bowed to Mr Collins, and desired him to play and spend as he felt, and to call the next day at the Navy Office, where he would find a certificate of his having passed. Mr Collins then bowed and retired. He got over the examination better than he expected. So he had been led to believe that the Faculty of London were not well disposed to candidates from Edinburgh. From a spirit of envy

Collins provoked a surgeon, a surgeon at London's request to HRP's Agents! Although the examination as described above does not appear long or very rigorous, it does give the impression that the prospective naval surgeon

had to have at least some knowledge of surgical practice and also to have some a suitable apprenticeship. It is very different from the Edinburgh form devised by Hamilton, when his friend's medical function is examined in King's Hall. He describes one young fellow who came out from the place of examination with a pale countenance, but his appearance and his looks so wild as he had seen a ghost, and when Hamilton himself was asked, 'What did it do?' during an interrogation he said, 'I was almost brought to you with his hand that off his head just before!'

The conditions in which the naval surgeon had to live and work were exceedingly poor. The wooden ships of the eighteenth century were unhealthy and miserably overcrowded. In 1698, *Lioness* 104, but long with a displacement of 2164 tons would have a crew of 550 men. The crew of a much smaller ship was 1500 tons displaces another 600 men.

Many of the ships were filthy and infested

with women. The extent of this can be seen in the entry for 17 May 1895 in Thomas Sampson's *Journal* on board HMS *Argentine*:

These two days past have been employed in clearing up deck of all her stores and ballast in order to despatch the ship which are very numerous. This day the 12th, we have all the hold, the magazine and stores, rooms cleaned washed and work looking cleaner and a new light laid to dry them....We have, as the *Captain* of getting out the stores killed about 300 large crabs, some into barrels as many small ones. And I have imagined with the *Nautilus* food were!

The magazine being at midships could easily be reached with the officers and some even had their own casks. This was more than likely supposed on the lower gun deck, in bad weather the gun ports of this cramped deck would be lowered down to prevent the deck being swamped with water, rendering the air stalling and foul and making a very unpleasant odour from water would be the wing deck, this was the lowest deck of all below the lower gun deck and situated below the main line. Cattle being an essential cargo, Royal Naval living with the marines on their mess on this deck.

Also situated on the edge deck would be the magazine scuttles. This was the place where operations were carried out and where the wounded were brought for the surgeon's attention during a battle. It was generally damp, unfavourably clean and very dark, being poorly lit by candles and lanterns. This had later made severely hampering the surgeon's work and caused great surprise to write in his *Journal*:¹² "That the deck looks like hell! I should have guessed and his complete recovery."

During an engagement the cockpit provided the surgeon with the worst imaginable conditions in which to carry out his work. In an attempt of sea time, the small area severely became crowded with dead and wounded men. The cramped conditions, poor ventilation and heat of the bulk with the heavy mist of the lower deck thundering above the surgeon's head would cause an unbearably high temperature particularly on some tropical climates, a high noise level, pain, reality and sensory confusion. Of the few accounts of the surgeon's cockpit during a battle that of Robert Young, surgeon of HMS *Indra*, is probably the most graphic and dramatic. The battle was out of the 16 Spanish ships that under the command of Admiral Don Juan, engaged the

same number of Dutch vessels, under Admiral de Winter, in the *Balk*, off Capetown on 11 October 1797. After completing a casualty list for the *Indra*, Young wrote an account¹³ of his experience in the cockpit:

All of night were wounded in the cockpit of the *Indra* in the *Balk*, in which I had no more having been witness for the first time in battle. I was employed in dressing and dressing till nearly four in the morning, the action beginning about midnight. No great war was longer than I began several operations under a flood of boiling water. I should have, secured the blood vessels.

Wounded were brought down during the action the whole cockpit often being heaped with my patients and my preparations for dressing were covered with them so that for a time they were laid on each other in the heat of the cockpit where they were brought down, and I was obliged to go on deck to the Commissary Office to draw the medicines and apply for men to go down the main line to carry and move the wounded to the wounded flanking forward into the stern and water, and then make room for the *Cockpit*. Wounded placed weapons mortally wounded died after they were brought down, surgeons whom was the better and worthy Captain Blagden whose cooper with difficulty he got extracted to the mainmast wing boat. Joseph Robinson had his right thigh taken off by a cannon shot close to the pelvis so that was impossible to apply a tourniquet his right arm was also shot in pieces. The stump of the thigh which was now badly putrefied a dreadful and in my opinion of surgical knowledge that time to level and two hours perfectly unable and seriously falling out on a strong rope for not to come back. The bleeding from the femoral artery although to high up must have been very uncontrollable and I observed a jet was forced as by law. All the services, I could render the unfortunate man was in pain, dressing over the part and give him a drink. In many other instances when, I had occasion to observe that vessels collapsed and blood limbs after gas that or splinter wounds. The vessel probably detached immediately has a tube brought together and an artery disconnected when it length eventually appeared by walking the surgical table over and around, which with the operations, commenced the circular fibres of

the injury occurred by the bottom completely closing the passage and sealing the stream of the blood from above. Whether this is correct is open for just or not, the fact is that the wound in the same time I am aware that it does not hold externally nor internally even for minutes. The fragments were addressed to me from every side by wounded and dying and, at times groans and howls from pain and despair. In the midst of these appalling scenes I was enabled to preserve myself firm and collected and continuing in the using the whole passage to direct my attention where the ground and most exposed organs could be perceived. Some with wounds had calmed and painful no slight in comparison with the dreadful condition of others were most thankful for my assistance that I was obliged to represent with severity as their state deteriorated that the statistics of the story, I observed and recommended the patient treatment of others and sometimes subjected myself to challenge from the enraged officers and succeeded in three momentary gleams of ebullience, unable to move forward. The man whom my first assistant (Richard Trevino, had not previously given up compliance from the time he was brought down and several months in the navy of the victory declared they rejected but the loss of time later.

An explosion of a sub sea with several cartridges, almost of the Carriage batteries fired the batteries with flame and it is common to know as there were no numbers down upon each other that first black as a raven, the clouds below as flames and the ships as fire. A Corporal of Marines lived two hours after the attack with all the chest wounds that were in it to measure the pulse. Captain Bagman went up of his nature but he fortunately had almost instantly. After the action ceased there were many dead bodies were intended before it was possible to get a platform cleared and some in the materials for cooking and drinking them. I had proposed being covered over with timber and killed and the same space darkened up. I have the satisfaction to say that of those who survived to undergo amputation or be dressed all were loyal and obedient in the Gas Room where they were placed and comfortably made as possible and on the third day were conveyed on shore via two double MJs in good spirit, sharing

the ship is going away smoking their pipes and jingling as they sailed along and answering the cheers of thousands of the population who received them at Yarmouth Bay (sic).

The ships sick berth was not necessarily in the same place in the cockpit. A space would be reserved for the sick for the capture and that was frequently either under the foremast or just below a space between two gun ports. Many described the sick berth as the stowaway between gun ports or any space between decks which is sometimes divided into a sort of apartment by means of a partition made of canvas.

A badly placed sick berth would be very deleterious to the health of the occupants. Some of the sick might be placed in the fore part of the hold which was damp, unsalubrious and filled with smells from the bilges.¹⁰ This would be a place which no sound pilot is allowed to ship for the Indian is for very human was very foul and offensive. James Fraser, surgeon of HMS *Cornwall*, complained that the sick berth was small and unsalubrious and the ship is generally very dirty.¹¹ While George McDermid, surgeon of HMS *Phoenix*, reported in his journal:¹² "On many of the sick on board had to be sent to the hospital at Plymouth rather than remain in the sick berth, owing as his reason that there was but a very poor accommodation for the sick men on board of the *Phoenix*, which was both cold, damp, and even sometimes wet in the middle during the time we fired on there was much violent vomiting—this sometimes, alone produced a real number of deaths during our stay there."

Thus it can be seen that in the case of the naval surgeon a lot more than of the Land's End (a policeman) was a very happy one. The poor fellow stated and had living and working conditions made the position of deep surgeon rather undesirable. That is, most of those who wished to enter the medical profession volunteered to find a position as a land-based surgeon. This means in some cases that the surgeons who fought themselves between combat to the sea for a living were the ones who were not in position and had tried to make a more humane living on land. This of course did not exclude all land surgeons for there were probably many who truly wished to be not fighting because of family circumstances with the sea or perhaps from a sense of pessimism.

WHEN BRITAIN RULD THE WAVES
Gavin Brown being an island hospital has

seemingly always had particularly close connections with the sea. It has always been not only a source of shipwreckers, but of hospital superintendents, a source of surgeons and even at times the sons of King ruled the Coast, a very few played a major part in its western expansion.

Throughout the greater part of the eighteenth century, the Royal Navy had been largely occupied with intermittent campaigns and wars with various adversaries, namely the Seven Years War (1756-1763), the War of the Spanish Succession (1700-1763) and the War of American Independence (1774-1783). On 1 February 1793, Europe's various republics France declared war on England.¹² For the next 22 years, with the exception of 1803 following the Peace of Amiens, Great Britain was fighting with France in the Napoleonic War.

With France being much larger than Great Britain and thus having available a much larger fighting force, it was inevitable that total command of the sea by the Royal Navy was a crucial aspect of this war. The size of the Royal Navy had therefore to be increased to meet the task, both in 1794 the fleet comprised 11 700 seamen. During that year numbers rose to 40 000 in 1797 and to 48 000 in 1818. Obviously as the size of the navy increased so did the number of surgeons required to look after all these extra seamen.

As has been previously mentioned the position of naval surgeons was generally one not exactly enviable either. As the size of the fleet increased so the navy had to recruit more surgeons, and increasingly found difficulty in so doing. The army was constantly increasing in size and so also required more surgeons. This of course diverted more medical men away from the sea, particularly because of the relatively lower status of army surgeons compared with their naval counterparts.

The disparity with the military was quickly highlighted as by 1800 both high and low in the navy and many measures were used to remedy the consequences and to prevent casualties throughout the duration of the war. The necessity had already been noted in 1793 by one Dr Robert Edmond, who called for the status of naval surgeons to maintain a parity with those of the army. In December of 1797 several Royal Navy surgeons sent a petition already to the Admiralty asking for recognition and Lord Nelson himself took up the matter in a letter dated 30 May 1800 to the Surgeon General of Naval Hospitals Dr Ross. After

considering a post-order recommendation by Mr Matthew Nelson wrote:

...but we must not seek men from our surplus of the same plan as in employing medical men while we do fighting. I think much might be done for our naval surgeons, if but we expect to keep valuable men.¹³

There were two major problems that also were good surgeons and who were also willing to join the Royal Navy. What therefore happened was inevitably the navy was forced to accept candidates who were inferior. It has already been seen that the Company of Surgeons examinations for naval surgeons was not very demanding. By accepting the requirements further the thought is a few surgeons who were unfortunately lacking in surgical knowledge and skills. One alternative to coping from poor to dangerous circumstances. However as the Commissioners for the West and West India themselves pointed out, no properly qualified surgeon would be likely to join the service as long as the pay was only 30 sh (12 pence) a day.

In 1792 Sir William Osborn noted the case of one surgeon Thomas Grey who although an excellent surgeon being encouraged with a defect in one of his eyes. We did not place much reliance on his abilities as computations. Although no doubt in theory on the more intellectual abilities, it is remarkable that anyone so obviously deficient in the practice of surgical techniques could be regarded as a fully competent ship's surgeon. Compensation was at that time the most important surgical procedure carried out, particularly in wars at sea.

Thomas Grey at least was undoubtedly competent, but the majority many of whom the 'White' chapters of HMSA later wrote appeared to be of more doubtful ability. In the wake of the beginning of his service that his third eye was so badly injured that he could neither understand Latin nor spell the commonest English words and that the first mate was indispensable for his duties although his presence was physically not was more, greater than the doctor's. With regard to Mr White's seconding, he could not perform a simple operation of any nature, nor make up the most common medical prescriptions. It was obvious that these men must have passed through a very lax examining system at Surgeons Hall.

The expansion of the Royal Navy to meet the

through food and her other not only required stout supports but of lateral, stout oblique poles. The floor of men was the more particularly from discomfort through pediment of various diseases with them. Diseases such as typhoid and enteritis which were considered could spread through the floor and rock, hence crippling the ships as they lay in harbour. As it happened, the circumstances were more severe as had been previously in 1797 the surgeon of HMS *La Hyacinthe* remarked: "We received some men from the oblique in HMS returning ship as Blandin who appeared perfectly well but who contracted some disease. However all was not lost for from examining all who were diseased, who it turns that the themselves we predicted the epidemic. In 1800 HMS *Astrolabe* was hit by quite an epidemic outbreak of ship fever. The surgeon Patrick Mallon stated that on one morning from a ship's deck and bringing the fever back down."¹

The writings required large crews to sail them and to meet their many guns and the hard life of the sailor was well known worldwide. The health of the crews, especially on foreign stations was much worse than that of men employed on land. Scarcely, were there any on general short lived and have their circumstances were not very different to that of the commonest part of the world. Treason however was more to the point something that few of them live to be very old.² Scaphism was notoriously severe and of course there was always the possibility of being killed during an engagement. The sailors always faced recreation problems as there were never enough volunteers to fill the ships and so other means of building the sailors' social distance had to be employed.

In 1795 a Quota Act was passed. This ordered every owner and landlord to provide a certain number of men for naval service. If there were insufficient volunteers local magistrates were empowered to search the workhouses and parish for men to make up the quota. These men were forced to be in all health and in the presence frequently reinforced "good boys" in the ships. This disease was the cause of ship fever although the two were separately identified at the time.

Another way the navy filled its ranks was by experiment. It was considered perfectly legal for the ships' captains to obtain crew for his vessel by taking men against their will either by violence, means. Prison gangs were sent out to capture unemployed men and were the source

of the poor sailors, lacking at night particularly against public houses and dragging their victims back to the ship where they became dreadfully infected in this manner. Many total men came to the ship and off or into many others than that clear and it was. The prison gangs could also gain men from other ships. These practices also guaranteed the risk of bringing aboard diseases particularly as it was found the most infectious cases of fever that the men were usually taken HMS *La Hyacinthe* surgeon also commented on this problem "I was on board the *Corps* from time to time to investigate the state of health of the people prior to our engaging some of them and finding them apparently perfectly healthy we returned about 14 men of whom shortly after our arrival found had febrile complaints and by the morning we contracted the disease."

In addition to men who were weakened by disease those who were healthy in body suffered the psychological problems of seamen who struggled away from their home and sea to sea. Ship fever was also associated with the sailors themselves as the use of prison gangs led to very bad feeling towards the navy in the ports. Many people complained bitterly about the harshness of the treatment of the men but improvement continued to be pursued for the benefit of both the Country and the navy's own navy.

A further source of disease came from the French themselves. The French fleet was much less healthy than the British and contact with the French invariably led to the passing on of some contagious disease. Once again the surgeon of HMS *La Hyacinthe* commented in his Journal entry for 5 October 1797: "In the prior part of my service on board *La Hyacinthe* the people were remarkably healthy not a symptom of fever appeared and we took on board some French prisoners, some of whom were attacked particularly the illnesses who were sent down into the holdways."

When an enemy vessel and no contact was against the enemy, cases from this source were divided between the officers and men, including the surgeons of the capturing ship. It was almost agreed therefore to capture the French ships and take their back to port (Hawkins) the British sailors who went to crew for these prizes were sent again after death, down to disease passed on from the French. It is curious the surgeon of HMS *La Hyacinthe* wrote against the entry in his Journal³ for 22 April 1797 that he was determined to find the

lower effectiveness among the ships company especially those who were on board the prizes and prisoners. A variety of circumstances convinced me that we are indebted to our commercial ties with the French ships and prisoners for the source of Lemmon producing the lower that allows our ship's company.

It would probably be due to this, due to the Napoleonic War, there was a decline in the health of the Royal Navy. This was partly due to the greater likelihood of sickness although the lack of output of the surgery makes remained unchanged the numbers of sick increased. In addition the number of wounds increased because there was a war on. Wounds were always a major factor in naval medicine but were more sporadic when the ships were not engaged in action although when they were the surgery was inevitable. For example in the Battle of the Glorious First of June in 1794, 291 French soldiers were killed and 131 wounded in the Port, in 1794 241 were killed and 571 wounded and at Trafalgar in 1805 689 were killed and 1291 wounded.

During war the naval surgeon was and had to cope to change to suit a great variety of diseases which would never be seen in peacetime but at last. Many of the surgeons benefited in a period when medicine and surgery were taken to a great extent by experience would have considerably advanced their medical education and improved their surgical skills. They would have to deal with a multitude of horrendous wounds while at the same time coping with diseases which could spread through a ship's company killing dozens of men and sailors and foreign sailors sailors gave rise to outbreaks of tropical diseases such as being common for different infections. The surgeons were often forced to experiment in order to save lives. Surgeon General of 1845, called reports¹⁷ on conditions of four ships attacked the ship while at Port Royal in Jamaica in July 1796 and which continued to run until the following October. The requirements for a greater number of surgeons had already forced the Navy Board to lower their entrance requirements which meant either or candidates thus opening the possibility of lowering health standards still further. However the surgeons still managed to maintain the health of those in their care. The success in clinical material gave the surgeons greater understanding of disease and its treatment they were not afraid to use the knowledge gained by the experience to

challenge the orthodox view. They expressed their surgical skills by practice in that way the war despite being clearly deleterious to the lives and health of many soldiers may have made a considerable towards improvements in naval medicine.

THE CLAP AND THE GONORRHOE

The questions which were brought to the surgeon were many. From amongst to explain, explain wounds to treatment the symptoms which the surgeons faced ranged from the common to the infamous. There were some complaints so common that they were listed in every surgeons Journal and others as infrequent as being struck by lightning or good by a ball. The naval surgeon had to be prepared to deal with everything.

It was this necessity for the ship's surgeon to be able to treat the multiplicity of cases with which he was faced that led him to follow a somewhat different course than the medical men on land. By definition a surgeon was someone who practised manual medicine, that is operations involving the body and the treatment of conditions such as ulcers by the application of external medicines. This was different to the occupation of the physician who covered the treatment of diseases by the prescribing of drugs to be taken internally and in the apothecary who dispensed the drugs the physician had prescribed. Although by the eighteenth century the functions of these different branches of medicine were becoming very blurred and few doctors could afford to remain solely in their original specialty the naval surgeon took this mixing to an extreme extent. On land particularly in the provinces surgeons practised internal medicine, but there was always the physician to consult for more difficult cases. The physicians were not supposed to enter surgery but spent some two thirds left to do proper patients. Few apart from an angry disappointed doctor were also practised, but only the naval surgeon had to combine all three functions into one.

Despite having to be competent in all three branches of medicine the naval surgeon was still not a surgeon. He had been educated by the Company of Surgeons and was not trained to join the examination for the Royal College of Physicians nor the Apothecaries Hall. Although many of the domestic surgeons like Calvert attended clinics as physicians in private practice, as an institution of them being considered as a in 1723 in answer to a complaint about a

surgeon's study, the Company of Surgeons surmised that they could only examine a ship as his property as a surgeon and not as a physician.¹

Fever was by far the most common disorder suffered by men at sea. Men with suppurring and potentially fatal liver was highly conspicuous and so could be perfectly devastating in the confines of a ship. When describing a fever Surgeon George McCraith² of HMS *Rusel* said: 'there is not more rational or disconcerting when a crew gets a complete day's company. The education of a cook's son in a fever was based on the observation of a greatly roused companion. The diseases therefore covered a number of conditions which were only later distinguished in the list of diseases treated in the surgeon's manual. Fevers were divided into two categories: continuous and intermittent. Intermittent fever was periodic, either when continuous fever might be typical, intense or yellow fever. Different types of fever were possible, on different seasons, but intense yellow fever was common on the West Indies and Africa. The following is a description of the symptoms of a fever which spread through HMS *Albatross*³ in 1765, while the war raged in Port Royal, Jamaica. It is typical of a case described from a Journal being martyred and disrupted.

The symptoms as they appeared on board the *Albatross* in the worst period were progression of strength, heavy sometimes acute pains of the forehead, a severe pain of the lower joints and sometimes a glass accompanied with a bloody salivation of the Eye. Nausea or vomiting of bilious contents, officers Black Major and midship Coffin Goughs often attended with convulsions by kind of the same kind the stomach starting, vomiting of the Contents of the Stomach, and at last more frequent and doctored with convulsions cold sweating bleeding at the Nostrils the Pulse sometimes for a short period full and quick, but soon, frequently languid gives place the Tongue white and brown in the edge, frequently covered with white clammy matter and in the first advanced stage, dry brown, and increased a fatal appearance in general but particularly so, when attended with frequent puking and loose stools, sometimes towards the close of the disorder a small red spot appeared on the face and some discoloured having lived spots where it had shown itself and was always a fatal sign.

The liver as described appears to have the symptoms of yellow fever which would have been very likely in Jamaica, however although many believed it so the surgeon described the red parchment part to call it a malignant liver.

Patients were also highly likely to arrive the ships at the time. That was the same ship longest or just liver that affected these living in crowded dirty conditions and attended these already in poor health it could very easily be fatal. The ships provided the perfect breeding conditions for the disease, which was passed from person to person particularly by dirty clothing and the companions' voices and the large influx of men from the crowded ports were encouraged the disease. It was probably this type of fever that was described by the surgeon of HMS *Forliver*⁴.

Anchored in Gibraltar Bay where we found the *Arcturion* Admiral Drake's ship, in good and fine wind. The following day Captain Mackenzie attended a court martial on board the *Forliver* which ship at that time had a number of her crew died fever. A few days afterwards one of the boats crew who attended the Captain were seized with it. Consequently left no member of doubt we had spread to men-of-war of the disease on board. Our people on long line started with this disease in almost completed of Hands. Part in their Backs, Nausea and vomiting of bile, light Pulse quick and irregular and total loss of appetite with a dry parched tongue.

Many remedies were attempted and the surgeons rapidly appeared any success in their Journeys. Surgeon Wilson of the *Forliver* who wrote the above description began using a very popular antimalarial treatment. Having arrived under De Lisle in the Physical work of the Royal Hospital at St. James' in the years 74 and 75 where I had an opportunity of seeing his patients materialise in a number of cases are filled with the primary part of the above mentioned symptoms.

However Wilson found that his patients worsened by their head blood being accompanied by nausea and vomiting and for the more difficult cases blisters with bark and wine. He personally reports that Out of the number I had all of the disease I did not live and but did I used more than one to hospital.

Other mentions for fever are discussed by Surgeon Winter of the ship⁵ Colonel which again was a popular remedy for dysentery in addition to being Spruce Root which some

recommended in documents as to how surgeons should be fitted to the vessel, as to its crew, necessary defences. He, upon boarding for four of his visits to the system, had noted that no small cases for pain, Dr James' River Powder's' so small amounts. These powders, had been actually noted in the ship, near the 175th. They are now known to have contained mercury and phosphorus of lime, and although a very popular remedy, probably did cause harm, these good sailors given with care. Warner's own remedy consisted of moderate doses of ipecacuanha in the late appearance of the complaint, sometimes when puking had commenced, and [he was] not dissatisfied with the practice. Having frequently found a headache, prescribing the common saline treatment, after it, which often removed the headache of the sickness when it failed, succeeded sometimes by prescribing the saline treatment as an alternative state.

The bark mentioned by Warner has required by Warner to be fitted the present; surgeons could not enter it was Chamberlain bark also known as Phoenix or Janet's bark, and was widely prescribed in the treatment of fevers. As this bark is the source of quinine, a specific against malaria, it is not surprising that it was found to be a particularly good remedy for intermittent fever. Indeed Surgeon Parry of HMS *Albatross*⁴ wrote: In combating fever the Peruvian bark is a special remedy and experience fully manifests to me that it is a specific. I therefore with regard to this affliction.

The bark was usually given in water and as a remedy constituted as a great share of the treatment. Its usefulness in combating fever seemed to be tried at all levels, but many patients found it hard to keep down.

This bark was highly contentious had been rejected by the navy since it was 1754 when a boarding ship had been set up at Portsmouth.

The naval surgeons were not slow to observe this, and as far as possible colonel/Doctors were segregated from the other sick to prevent the infection spreading. This segregation was not confined to three cases in Surgeon Carr of HMS *La Nymphe* remarks⁵ when he observed that, on sailors had the bark, he says as it was known that they were affected I had a berth reserved in this the rest of the people, and a certain placed overhauled prevent them going out, with a view to preventing infection. Two others were also segregated with cupel and afterwards washed before they were allowed to leave on shore discharge from the sick list.

The ship was, also, segregated and classified the attempt to relieve the disease, the grounds which were blamed for the spread of disease. Surgeon Graham⁶ during an outbreak of fever, segregated between the decks with Patients Aboard on 15 April 1797. He reported the proceedings every three days and the fever had diminished.

Quarantine was also a disease which was well suited by the conditions on board ship, and no outbreak of any sort could render the sick berth finally isolated and the air especially in hot climates could easily become stinking and foul. James Grey mentions Surgeon to HMS *Exeter* wrote in a letter to his friend⁷ of the conditions on board which he considered led to the dysentery on board.

When I joined the *Exeter* at Table Bay she was preparing to be hoisted down, her guns, stores and crew were put on board the *Andromeda* through *Exeter* which had been some time before, remained on the line and nearly 1800 men were so that every person on board was continuously exposed to exhalations arising from the stagnant water in the hold and every aperture from ropes protruding wind and from the fish and dory which the wind caught and made of nature abundantly supplied. The weather also about this time was variable and unpleasant and the decks so stinked that in several places the vomit fell directly into the foremast.

Having returned three weeks after this atmosphere of contagion we were removed into the *Exeter* but this, also in having down had been nearly filled with water and was still very dirty and uncomfortable. We were however isolated and as we had not been soiled on the River Plate experience with some dysentery patients on board besides other sailing complaints.

The main symptoms of the dysentery cases of which Grey was himself one for a time, were the extreme difficulty, apparent painlessness and prodigious loss. Grey attributed to the close lying, cramped quarters and heatiness, but looking these he had changed his treatment to purgatives—baths were and vomper. From the close isolation at the end of the *Andromeda* it can be seen that over the period covered, 29 June 1803 to 15 March 1804, there were 23 dysentery cases out of 68 persons sick (33%). But only one, death, Surgeon Alexander Miles of HMS *E*, himself also writing on dysentery⁸ noted that a particularly massive load of the

disease had broken out, after the crew had begun to drink from a fresh cask of water. After proceeding the Captain is seen to the officer and Nelson found that all the crewed physicians showed up. From this he drew the conclusion that the cause of this outbreak of dysentery had been in the water.

Another condition which was very frequently found on board ship was venereal disease. Gonorrhoea and syphilis were often contracted by the sailors while their ships were in port. Although the sailors were rarely allowed to go ashore, in case they jumped their women were allowed on board to entertain the men. In addition women were sometimes employed as the ships in service. The surgeons often complained about this practice, as the venereal diseases which resulted rapid reinfected in the first Surgeon "Log of HMS *Agave*"¹⁰ complained in the Navy listed that when stationed in Lisbon, the ship was constantly full of sailors.

It is interesting to note that despite the frequency of its occurrence, venereal disease was not included as the last passed in the surgeons' journals. The reason for this was that venereal diseases were viewed differently in the eyes of the navy. The contracting of this disease was not seen as unfortunate or merely unpleasant, but as sinful, and sailors who had it were flogged. The money Nelson charged (75 pence) was to the surgeon, but generally they were ignored this fine. The physicians discouraged sailors from providing their complaint to the surgeon or else they would not sail the condition was well understood. Many of the women listed in the journals as having venereal disease, it is noted had already tried the cure of quick doctors on shore but to no avail. The fine for having venereal disease was eventually abolished in 1794.¹¹

Wounds were not the only way the surgeons complained of dysentery was also a very serious problem. When the ships were in port the sailors often managed to get hold of drink despite being told money. As one surgeon wrote: "The men have all been drunk about two days from being taken to their beds, but have succeeded in making spirits, it has therefore appeared more than fully told, so that they have no recovered allowance." The sailors were also given their individual rations even though they were not on exercise around the voyage claimed that the men boarded their own in order to consume a little more. Apart from diseases directly related to drink such as

delirium or perhaps just for the sailors the surgeons showed drink both directly and indirectly for other conditions. For instance, both Ralph Cairnes¹² and Surgeon Andrew Smith of HMS *Agave*¹³ claimed that the crew with whom the sailors could procure rum led to them getting drunk and then collapsing, vomiting and lying in the open, it is noted that this caused the yellow fever Alexander Gurney¹⁴ of HMS *Cherwell* put the high occurrence of sickness on board down to, "scurvy and the universal use of ardent spirits, from which sailors reason for temporary relief". This was in Port Harcourt in 1794, but was substantiated for the subsequent years, even so the complaints of the surgeons that faced it, lost some comparative bearing. There was however one problem which drink certainly caused, this was the number of accidents which occurred as a result of excessive intoxication. The surgeons journals describe many such incidents, particularly involving falling overboard or down the rigging, where the sailor was drunk at the time.

The symptoms of the sailors of this period gradually proved accidents for the ships had to be sailed and manoeuvred entirely by hand and the sailor's drunk took him both high into the rigging where he would be involved in falling ropes, falling into the sea and overboard and below where he could be manhandling stores or heavy equipment. These natural risks led to many cases of injuries, particularly to those men who had to work while suffering from one of the many debilitating conditions which caused muscle weakness. In addition the surgeon was called upon to deal with such conditions and broken bones caused mostly by such accidents as falling from the rigging or being struck by ropes with or apart.

A major problem which was a direct result of many of the accidents was the development of ulcers. This, suffering from sores in other disorders of the mouth, malnutrition were particularly vulnerable and the independent conditions on board some vessels aggravated the problem. Even very minor cuts and abrasions if not properly treated for could develop into many cases in the Surgeon's HMS *Arctur*¹⁵ the surgeon wrote against the cost of one John Hamilton who had an ulcerated foot.

"He was a small born Donald and suffered an ulcer to spread and became disposed to gangrene before he was cured. Hamilton was discharged in such condition where he no doubt underwent amputation. In the same

(*Journal*) the surgeon describes the treatment given for scurvy.

John Long (1816-1884) Surgeon—went to Argentina, Rio February, 1798 for an shore and discharged with a wound of foot in April that shore was open and it was recommended an experiment of him he was cured on board at sea after about two months. Cure—an infestation quickly produced dried with extract of Native Lumphar Cortex or succinate compound. Both cures not were given internally. During collection of Cortex or Lumph applied externally—conflict affections has appeared in vessels the patient from the pain of death.

Many surgeons gave amputations, 12 legs and 10 toes just to cure scurvy resulting from scurvy. The story of the surgeons of this disease is well known and well set in reputation as great dead hero. However, it is interesting because a short time this disease continued to rage through ships with devastating results where a solution was widely known. Even at the outbreak of scurvy it was known that fresh food and vegetables were a cure, but the firmly held dogma of ascorbic acid was not discovered and it was not accepted and proved in the first clinical trial by James Lind who published his results in the *Treatise of the Scurvy* in 1753. It is inferred from the surgeons' accounts that the waters of Lind were known. Many surgeons made reference to him and as he was not had worked under his name at Hatter. But some reason though the navy did not adopt his methods until Captain Blane finally persuaded them in 1795 that the only way to prevent scurvy was to provide ships with lemon juice.¹² By that time however the surgeons were already keeping stores of scurvy diets in a warehouse having recognized the usefulness of lemon juice and lime juice and the necessity for a diet of fresh provisions on board ship. It should be pointed out that lime juice was used by the navy in preference to lemon because it was cheaper, however it was not as effective as lemon juice. When previously sailors of any length would wonder the crew were and desired that to cure the scurvy of HMS *St George*¹³ could show in 1792 that ships are stocked on the Mediterranean's coast, when it was were much more healthy than when at sea, especially when they were well supplied with lemons and oranges. In his *Journal* for 1794 Surgeon Richard Williams of HMS *Adolph*¹⁴ states: I have not in this *Journal* taken any notice of the Scurvy as I found they all

speedily recovered by Lemon Juice and abstemious.

The best way to demonstrate that scurvy was no longer a problem is to quote from some of the later summaries. HMS *Le Commerce* 1798-1799 one case of scurvy (dead)¹⁵ HMS *Tymer* 1797 no scurvy 1798 1799 one case of scurvy (dead)¹⁶ HMS *Alfred* 1797-1798 no scurvy.¹⁷

It should however be noted that although lemon and lime juice and fresh vegetables were recognized as a cure for scurvy they were not used as a remedy then a preventive. Although some surgeons did want crews with fruit on a regular basis, many gave lemons to only those who were sick or had scurvy attacks.

The surgical part of the physiological of the scurvy although inspired in the treatment of accidents and ulcers in the web limbs on a daily basis, were more evident when they was in an engagement. The wounds resulting from scurvy ulcers that the surgeon could be called upon to treat were varied and usually extensive. Large level broken brought in other quarters could result in particularly devastating casualties. The most serious at the level limbs was the rotting and the majority of injuries remained untreated and recorded in the accounts were the result of scurvy alone. The properties lived from the ulcers were not only often used also employed to destroy the scurvy ships and sometimes their ports but also their crew and her ship. These elongated wounds were used to divide the ships masts and thus prevent them from maneuvering. However the results of these proposals had no personnel was particularly horrific, also the killing ripping rotting nose outside and broken bones. A further type of scurvy goes that is disease that which contained a number of smaller propellers, was aimed at killing or maiming the sailors.

While HMS *Levi* reported that Spanish frigates one of the crew Surgeon George Carter was injured by gunshot shot, Surgeon James Young describes his wounds, that¹⁸ Carter was wounded only in the arm by a 16lb Grape shot which covering the dorsal part of the ship close to the mainmast mast—and although upwards shattering the mast—and made its exit on the outside part by the main Masthead. Young stated a fourmasted and anticipated the big shot the main. The fourmasted being applied nearly in the same point the first entrance close to the capstan part of the mast—And by the next entrance through

the mackerel they caught came away without using the saw—removed all the spines of the fish, broken down with the mechanical saw—sufficient strength was preserved to operate the saw notwithstanding the resistance of the wooden—where it first seemed to snag it was impossible. In the course, one of the Spanish frigates, *La Santa Catalina* of 43 guns was captured, but unfortunately Carter was one of those who died.

As well as dental operations as a result of common law, many more were offered by the surgeons produced when various boats anchored through the wooden sides of the ships. Injuries from small arms and hand to hand fighting were also numerous. When ships were stopped their medicines were produced on the tops to park off sailors on the storm's deck. It will be recalled that Nelson was killed by a musket ball fired from the mainmast arm of the French flagship *Battlement*.¹⁸

The last of a sea dog wound received while a boarding party from HMS *Lion* was attacking a Corsic ship demonstrated the extremely delicate and skilled work that could be carried out by some of the surgeons upon the surgeon in James Young.¹⁹

John Evans aged 30 German—Charles Wood in both hand by the right hand and the right the ball entering the back part of the hand in an oblique direction and shattered the metacarpal bone of three fingers making its exit through the palm—at the left the shot entering nearly at the articulation of the first phalanx of the thumb with the unguitrux passed quite through and totally destroy'd the joint—having splintered all the bones of the thumb a piece between it and the forefinger.

Chartered all the lower portions of the fractured bones reduced to their position and set all the fractured ends of the metacarpal bone—Applied simple dressings with proper splints and bandages—and followed immediately with warm diet and Charismatic and narcotic.

The inflammation which succeeded was violent and the abscess large and painful—but by the continued application of poultices and syringes out of spirits—and an open jelly—it is kept attended—several parts of these work it out—and the wounds healing—he was again recovered on the 10th September except the use of his left thumb. A

guy's Antiphon having barked in the yard—Day.

Although the operation described above was carried out after the person had taken place it should be remembered that a great many operations had to be undertaken on the battle ship overhead. This was not only difficult but could also be life threatening in the surgeon himself. George McLeish's account of the *Baron*²⁰ describes what happened while attempting to fix during the Battle of Copenhagen.

He was fixed on the table and the operation performed in the usual way which he knew very well indeed so much so that he did not require an assistant to hold him on the table but it was that he began to feel as if that at the same time with the surgeon and passed the table close the patient all the way who turned the chief of my assistance.

The surgeon also had many other cases to deal with. On 12 February 1808 the French *Servant* a *Marsou* of 1800 tons presented in the harbour. Thomas Sappers²¹ having been 'Purchased' by a Frenchman on the day preceding the arrival symptoms attributed to the rapid water suddenly accompanied with nausea and a state of pain in the breast. The good doctor's medicine, must have been better than his colleague for the man was discharged on ship on 17 March.

The surgeons also came across sailors who helped others in order to get an hospital when no doubt they recognised as power like Surgeon Gordon of HMS *Charybdis*²² writer of one such case that of one Maria Root.

These descriptions of pain which first two symptoms no one would hesitate to pronounce Rheumatism. We must however observe neither the longer nor shorter showed any signs of the disease.

The history of this case leaves little doubt but that this man figured his complaints as perhaps as yet in the hospital.

What should have been done with it? It is answered order him to his duty. Such a step though proper would have disappointed the people upon the surgeon whose advice is given as by no means desirable. We must therefore act with caution for I am of opinion that the discovery of sailors is not suggested nor suppressed.

Some sailors were so eager to escape bright to get off their ship in a rain against the their

1205, Surgeon Captain of HMS *La Fougasse*¹⁷ wrote: 'I am much inclined to think, from the general conduct of the patients, that hæmorrhoids consist in being in the posture of producing or abate—the deep seated brick-dust [diagnosis] and the surrounding inflammation being every appearance of what is to be considered as having been applied to the skin.

Perhaps the most famous case to be found in the Journals is that of John Casanagge as reported by Surgeon-Lieut. Surgeon of HMS *Jarvis*¹⁸

Casanagge complained of excessive pain in the stomach and intestines and inability to retain anything in the stomach, also being day and night having vomited on the preceding day 19 or 20 drops (see box 44 and 45) and last night near the large of which was soon after rejected, but the faeces contained¹⁹

Unfortunately the metropolitan Hospital has not survived, so we are unable to find out what happened to this man.

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An Historical Note

The build-up to 'WJ Day' and its aftermath as recorded in *The Jacksonville Times*

† These animals from the badly-preserved specimens are represented by courtesy of Mr. William H. Anderson, Commander, U.S. Fish and Game Service, who donated the material to the Academy as a GIFT.



Fig. 1

During the recent weeks millions of leaflets have been dropped by Allied planes all over the Japanese Empire giving details of the recent news and the war effort at sea.

NAVAL ENVOYMENT On Sunday US warships bombarded Misawa and Furubakari in the Northern Korea. American naval planes also attacked targets in the Truk Islands Series between Korea and Japan while Army bombers raided Fusan in Korea.

ISLANDS SWEEP UP The Russians have made big advances towards the coastal plain of Manchuria and latest reports say they are now within 100 miles of the capital. In the east, they have captured several islands and carrier stations at intervals up to 30 miles. In the west, they have made great encroachings of the Manchurian mountains and now have occupied a town on the Hsiao Hsien railway. The Russians also report a breakthrough on Sakhalin Island.

NAVES FOR TRIAL 12 former prisoner Germans are now in Pyongyang awaiting trial as war criminals. They were taken from the camp

interrogation centre in Unsanbong. They included two Poles. Additionally General Joseph Field Marshal Kozak, former prisoner from division Kubitz, Ley and two Indian, American, British. The trials of the individuals concerned with the atrocities committed in the Reform Concentration Camp will probably take place later with Allied war crime investigations on, searching for 20 German doctors who carried out vivisection experiments on Polish girls, several of these girls are now in hospital in a hospital in Poland.

ADMIRAL, MENTRE DECORATED On behalf of the King, Admiral Sir Bruce Fraser has decorated Admiral Papanic with the Knight Grand Cross of the Order of the Bath on board the battleship HMS Duke of York.

CHINA A treaty of friendship has been signed between Soviet Russia and China. Dr T. Y. Soong, concluded the negotiations and agreement has been reached on all points.

TAIL-PIECE There is no immediate prospect of an armistice in East Prussia in Prussia.

**THE YAMAGUCHI TIMES SPECIAL
VICTORY ISSUE, TOKYO SAT. MON.
16 SEPTEMBER 3, 1945**

Cameo was brilliant

The famous Japanese performer yesterday showed 1,500 Moslems in Tokyo Bay his locally and universally lauded the best of the three eggs, not to mention the fact that many more have seen in the days of the medieval power of the world. Japan, after emerging as the middle of the twentieth century, there has found nothing but upon the last duties of the performer yesterday for the attempt in the subsequent of the East which reached its climax in Port Moresby on Sunday morning towards the end of 1944.

It is voluntary to remember that Japan, eighty years ago, was under the hands of the world. The Moslems in the very of life and then the progress of the last made more than for the sake of the Moslems due to the other influence and at times very powerful help of these men. Western Moslems which the last so have been strong to drive from the sea and of Asia and from the multitude of captured slaves which spread across the Pacific Ocean.

The history of Japan's relationship with the western world is long and full of incident and has been a long and hard struggle. It was not until the late 19th century, after Japan, closed the door in 1903 and opening them a little of the world she never intended to open. Japan began her long series of attempts to reach the Moslems. Four years later she opened China and then began what she deemed a full scale Chinese campaign which was to remain open-ended until 1911.

After Japan had allied herself with the two other powers in the world, the United States and Great Britain was only a matter of time. Typically the Moslems appeared the Sea of Japan, where a moment when Great Britain was at its height and America was probably engaged in a war. It was a war of the world, the first of its kind, which reached its climax in the thousands of miles of war.

The end of the war is the reason that we need to remember. Their faithfulness, their loyalty, their courage and their strength for the sake of the world, has made us realize the Japanese for the first time in the world. We can only hope that the country performed yesterday, only a small show from what we are

trying to do, is the result of a permanent and enduring peace.

THE SURRENDER OF JAPAN

Tokyo Bay, Sunday 2nd September

With mighty warships coming overboard and surrounded by the immense strength of the combined Allied Fleet, Japan's delegates today signed the documents which finally concluded their reluctant struggle to make the demands of the West, and reserve Asia for the Japanese.

Although officially described as sailors, the men during the surrender ceremony were sailors, officers and marines, and remained so throughout the day. The quartermaster of the great American battleship Missouri had been specially chosen for the purpose. The gun were pointed skywards to make announcements and it seemed that every vessel in the bay was engaged in the game and the Japanese seemed to have a plan of the future of the Japanese. And that the day was the sign of the end of the world. On the second side of the quartermaster stood a long row of General MacArthur's leaders, including such names as Douglas MacArthur, Joseph Stilwell, Kruger, Hodge, Ewell, and many others who had taken a prominent part in the campaign. On the third side of the ship stood a long row of the officers, each representing a national representative and, as well, in the center was a table and behind it a chair, specially brought for the occasion from HMS Hampshire. On the fourth side of the ship were the Japanese, each representing a national representative and, as well, in the center was a table and behind it a chair, specially brought for the occasion from HMS Hampshire. On the fifth side of the ship were the Japanese, each representing a national representative and, as well, in the center was a table and behind it a chair, specially brought for the occasion from HMS Hampshire.

MacArthur was seated in the center of the ship, and the Japanese delegates were seated on the other side of the ship. The ceremony was held in the presence of the United States and British fleets, and the Japanese fleet.

At twenty-five minutes past one a boat bearing the Japanese delegates came alongside. Protected by United States and British warships, they came on board, led by a very tall and very thin Japanese officer. He was followed by a group of Japanese officers and men, some in uniform and some in civilian clothes. They were all looking at the American and British ships with interest and admiration. The Japanese delegates were then taken to the deck of the Missouri, where they were met by General MacArthur. The ceremony was then held on the deck of the Missouri, with General MacArthur presiding. The Japanese delegates signed the documents, and the ceremony was then over. The Japanese fleet then departed, and the American and British fleets remained in the bay.

military officials looking very stout and one or two of them with a bit in their eyes.

A solemn fall upon the joint assembly in General MacArthur's camp met of Admiral Halsey's order and came forward to the microphone in a slow and deliberate tone he explained the significance of the ceremony which was about to take place. He concluded by saying: 'As Commander-in-Chief for all the Allied Powers, I announce it is my highest purpose to proceed with justice and tolerance while giving every man to see that those terms of surrender are fully complied with.' He then stood aside and motioned to Mr Staggman, a Japanese civilian hurried forward to the table and placed upon it two documents in Japanese script, which represented Mr Staggman to a man chosen from the Emperor to sign on his behalf. Then Mr Staggman himself came forward, he studied the surrender documents for a moment or two. It was a square white parchment sheet, about one foot by one with a half inch or so and in two copies, the first in gold and red for the Allies, the second for the Japanese most appropriate at such a ceremony. After considerable deliberation, with his wonder by Mr Staggman on show at the table. Then he pulled off two yellow gloves and handed them to an aide. Then again he studied the documents. General MacArthur followed with impatience, it was all pretty much too slowly for him. Mr Staggman looked at his own watch, he looked at his watch a while, he looked at his pen and it's been five. He was offered another pen but at that moment he was appeared to have sufficient ink and the documents was signed. The Japs were all tense and uncomfortable by demand General MacArthur signing on behalf of the Japanese military authorities, wanted no time with his Japanese General Nishizawa then called General West, Wright and Li Chin Fong, in summary form as he signed on behalf of the Allies. He picked up a silver pen from the table and signed the documents with a shaking hand. He then signed and presented the pen to General MacArthur. Taking a second pen, he signed the Japanese copy and presented that pen to General West. A third fourth and fifth pen were also used by MacArthur during the ceremony and one of them will probably be presented to President Truman.

Following this Admiral Halsey accompanied by Admiral Halsey and General MacArthur signed for the United States of America. General MacArthur then, calm and efficient looking, signed for the Republic of China. Then

Admiral Sir Bruce Fraser accompanied by Vice Admiral Boscawen and Rear Admiral Broad signed for the United Kingdom. Admiral Fraser accomplished the feat of making two rapid runs with those pens. There were probably also for representatives General Gurneyman signed for the USSR. Sir Thomas Blaney for Australia, Colonel Gurney for Canada. General LeClerc for France. Admiral Halliday for the Netherlands and Sir Ian Vane Marshall for New Zealand. The whole ceremony has taken only fifteen minutes and General MacArthur closed it with these few words: 'I pray that peace be soon restored in the world and that God preserve it always. Let these proceedings close. The time has therefore minutes is over. The Japanese citizens led for them. That peace was restored to the world.'

Meanwhile, the occupation of the Japanese homeland continues and hundreds of Japanese held areas elsewhere is expected to be completed within the next few days. American air and surface troops steadily continued their landings on the Japanese mainland and the first units of the American Fifth Army moved off Takahama in a large column of a hundred from which they headed in various points along the waterfront. Sixth Army and Navy Forces have completed the occupation of the Ryukyu Islands. Rear Admiral Harcourt, Commander of the Fourth Naval Force who, for the past few days, has been lying in Hong Kong harbour, has now established British administration in Hong Kong. Units of the British, East Indian Fleet are still working off Penang to take over the port of Georgetown. Preparations are being made in Singapore for the arrival of the British General Staff on Wednesday. It is expected that on that day Japan will sign the surrender of the remainder of its last possessions the Dutch East Indies, Burma, Borneo and most of Indo-China. It is expected that Generalissimo Chiang Kai Shek will receive the surrender of all the Japanese in China on Thursday in Nanking. Japanese had surrenders throughout the remainder of the Pacific. There are expected to be completed before the end of the week. Total, largest of all the Japanese enemy force in the Central Pacific surrendered on Saturday with an estimated 50,000 troops. All Japanese mainland islands including the Carolines, the Marshalls and the Bonins are to surrender to Admiral Nimitz. The British already occupy Gilian, a new off Malacca, where the Americans will occupy the surrender of 15,000 Japanese in the

South with Pacific into Lieutenant General Yamashita's sweeping two-arm compass of Kamagaya, personally gave himself up to American troops in Nagoya in Northern Japan and is prepared to surrender formally today.

IMPRESSIONS OF YOKOHAMA

Yesterday morning, while the remainder of the city was being overhauled and between enemy and enemy troop carriers were dropping anchor near the entrance to Yokohama harbor, a small party from this ship was able to get first-hand information of the way in which the Japanese people are accepting the surrender and also of the local damage in the city. A landing was first made at a quay on the dock side. The dock was jammed by American vehicles and large cranes were being unloaded from a cargo ship nearby. Devastation was seen everywhere and the main Japanese main was a few men and boys hiding in shelter by means of small trees, some stores by despoiled-looking houses others in backlots. A pale, old man was seen digging his small patch of garden attached to his back door back. The whole scene was one of complete desolation. Large areas of ground on which buildings had previously stood were flat waste and covered with debris and scrap corrugated iron. A good many eggs were apparent to have been laid and other public facilities damaged. Dock boats were packed with wrecked stuff of all descriptions and much large refuse was floating about not only in these lanes, but in the main harbor as well. Not a single man looking up was seen in this area. Everywhere was overgrown with weeds and the general impression of the dockside was that devastation had started some half hour ago.

A Japanese medical carrier lay near the pier in the main harbor, completely bare, and empty was the United States Army Hospital Ship *Albatross* which was just berthing. The docks were lined with large numbers of white and other members of the staff. Representatives of the American press camp, with sound-recording equipment, were there to take impressions from members of staff as they came ashore.

Later we moved over to the portside opposite side of the harbor where a continuous stream of landing craft, looking rather like ants, was piling up and its carrying troops ashore, where they landed up and marched off in the direction of the Grand Hotel to the sound of marching

music played by a brass band. In the center of the city too is what was previously the fashionable quarter, the general impression was one of desolation, neglect and poverty. Although the devastation was not as severe as it has been in the dock area, large areas of land were flat waste and more buildings damaged. The few shops that had no goods on view. Most of them were empty and boarded up. Gardens and pavement borders had obviously been neglected for many months. At that point and were overgrown with weeds.

Not a single uniformed soldier was seen. The Japan HQ was one of the few great buildings still built and rather suggestive of a touch to its construction. A line of sentries was seen outside preventing access to the Chief of Staff's quarters from the main side entrance. Newspapermen and photographers were there at that time and one an American who had just returned from a first hand view of the war zone, told an amusing story of how Colonel Campbell, who spent his Christmas, was let signifier in the wrong place. In consequence, all the representatives following him committed the same mistake with the result that all their names had to be deleted and signed again from the Japanese. This was not old "C" a good many drinks. He will certainly not be able to let down his having made such a blunder on one of the greatest days in history.

The Japanese people that were seen were mostly in divided area but without the officials and the colonel's concern. The former who were responsible for inferior clothes, were wearing uniforms displaying their functions and were polite but exhibiting in their attitude, the latter appeared poverty stricken and carried and utterly dejected. They were all yellow and took little notice of what was going on. Several members of the Japanese police were seen wearing cheap army coats, all being clearly pale faced and carrying very looking pistols. They appeared generally unkind.

Perhaps a striking feature of the whole scene of Yokohama and its inhabitants was a lack of pleasure, both in the country of the town. Its people had perished off and its shore was hanging from its air. Somehow a war typical of everything in the human city.

As we left the harbor, streams of landing craft were still coming in and we aimed with pride that the ship *Black* at points, had come alongside the quay, possibly having brought representatives others from the surrender ceremony.

Royal Naval Medical Club Dinner 1991

The annual dinner of the Royal Fife of Medical Club was held in the Woodroom, HMS Colington, Portsmouth, Hants on Friday 6 September 1991 when Surgeon Rear Admiral Sir A. Lumsden, LNO Q44, Medical Director General (Naval) gave the following speech.

Admiral Black: Honoured guests, Members of the Club.

It is a great pleasure that I welcome you to this year's Annual Sea Dinner.

The Club Secretary Surgeon Commander Oliver Howard has put a lot of hard work into organising this evening's entertainers for which we are all extremely grateful. Oliver would be the first to admit that the selection of Friday 6 September occurred by chance rather than for any special reason. However, it could not have been more appropriate as it coincides with the 50th anniversary of Surgeon William Marshall joining the Victoria Cross on the very day 1941. He is the only Naval Medical Officer ever to receive this great distinction. At the time he was serving in HMS Alcock during the Chalk Baking.

This Club was founded some 75 years ago and delivers first class food each year aimed at the period covered by the two World Wars. Since 1941 we are truly fortunate that as the Festival Hall was otherwise busy. So as the club's long and we did order in Plymouth or in Portsmouth.

Thank you are extremely grateful to the Woodroom Mess Purveyor Commander David Rando for allowing us to use the excellent facilities here in Colington. We are delighted to be able to dine with us.

I am sure that you would wish me to extend our thanks to:

1. The Colington Volunteer Band under the direction of Colour Sergeant Wilson for providing the excellent musical entertainment.
2. Our thank you to Colonel Cateron and to Chief Petty Officer Bernard Davison and all

members of his team who have helped in preparing and serving our delicious dinner.

Last Monday morning the Secretary of State was interviewed on Radio 4 prior to opening the RN Hospital Buildings in Portsmouth. To the surprise of Surgeon Rando, his King suddenly branched into a diatribe about Mr Yelland and Mr Kraycher. I was grateful for his deliberate mistake as it reminded me of the old story of someone once asking Chairman Mao: "What way do I thought the course of history would have differed if Mr Kraycher had been assassinated rather than J. F. Kennedy. After a moment of usually incoherent reflection the old boy replied that he doubted if Aristotle would have named Mr Kraycher!"

Patients always recognise the progress made and the resources, to help us the medical services are continuously expanding.

Having survived Life Alike Yelland we are now in the business of trying to survive Life After Yelland and The Prospect Study. You will have probably seen the total post-operative knee levels which were dominated at the national press a few weeks ago but we are still waiting for the clinical evaluations of the Medical Services. In common with other support areas we are fully expecting reductions of approximately 20% commensurate with care in from time when.

ICDR (Programme) and Personnel, the officers of which are known as medical in helping the review of the Defence Medical Services as part of the Prospect Study. It is making rather slow progress for a number of reasons.

1. It is a very complex subject.
2. Historically there has always been a great reluctance, and still is, between the three medical services to measure the progress, to consider their needs, and make most effective use of their resources.

Back in 1972 you may remember the National Audit Office (NAO), then part of the Comptroller and Auditor General's Office, reported on various aspects of service hospitals, in particular their relationship with the NHS. Since that time Ministers have never returned to that issue that critics of our Hospitals are too small, too primitive, over staffed and under funded. It goes without saying those accusations have never applied to Harlow and Wandsworth.

When considering what may happen in the future I believe it is very important for us to remember that one of the fundamental principles of Progress in that direction should reflect the RMA, rather than CAUTION.

Ministers are determined to reduce the number of hospitals from possibly four. It is their opinion that any additional secondary medical care should be provided by the NHS. This decision is based primarily on the understanding that, all servicemen and women are just as entitled to NHS hospital treatment as anyone else.

Undoubtedly there has been a great reliance on the Royal Defence Corps to support up to proposals for the future without income.

1. The new war site.
2. The new shape and location of the Post Opus Hospital.
3. The overall maintenance plans of the Royal Services which still remain unclear.

It has become increasingly obvious over the last 9 months or so that it will not be possible to sustain RNLI Plymouth in its present form for very much longer.

1. Budget holders in all levels are facing severe financial difficulties and will continue to do so. Commanders are constantly being urged upon to do rather like self-surgery without an anaesthetist—always very painful.
2. The severe shortfall in the RMA branch is well well on and likely to continue for the foreseeable future (currently £250,000 p.a.). This is exacerbated by the shortfall of the RMA's who currently have 128 gapped billets.

As far as the replacement of secondary work and care for the RN is concerned I am pleased to report that discussions with the Plymouth Health Authority are well advanced to establish some form of integrated care with the NHS in the Dartford area. There is still a lot of work to be done in putting out the details but providing the financial assistance has not to be denied.

Very few are confident that service hospitals will survive as:

1. To continue to look after our people in the West Country.
2. By transferring the means laid down by the Royal Colleges as well as certainly put the training time on a much longer footing, which is no ground for increasing staff treatment.
3. It will probably be to have the best possible chance of fulfilling our war role.

In summary our dilemma is to consider the planned functions against our continuing need to meet the war role, the personnel commitment, money and the training base.

As is often support given—the services are not that. Medical personnel have to be matched to an extremely difficult task.

Throughout the negotiations we have had to be extremely careful not to let anyone throw away the operational baby with the bathwater.

The Progress Team have recently agreed that it was a significant understanding of the top structure. This will result in a small central core HQ responsible for policy formulation. The implementation of the policy will be fully devolved to the Commands who will have the financial resources to manage their own affairs which is very much in line with the principles of the NHS which were first on 1 April 1981.

As things stand in our own the RMA, is programmed to move to Portsmouth in the second half of 1981 where it will get more than with CDRMA/140ME. It will be necessary to restructure a new organisation under one Commander-in-Chief. There is still a lot of detail to be worked out but it is highly probable that MEDGVI and the single service staff will ultimately move to Portsmouth.

As we proceed through this difficult period in our history some medical management in the periphery and in London will make a few business to put on any credible collaboration that we have in our possession in the future development of the Medical Services.

I would be very grateful if everyone could demonstrate this morning.

One of the major concerns in the planning of Operation Gnat, was to try to minimise the number of allied casualties. It is now very particularly conscious that BRAN, only assessed chemical weapons but this had already used them in the war against BRAN and against their own people.

On that issue a significant medical presence was not seen as obvious. We had 8000 UK hospital beds in South Africa, Bahrain and on board RFA ships which was operating in the Northern Gulf. The oil refining ship-bases was associated with great speed and a 100 bed Primary Casualty Hospital there. It took nearly one calendar month from putting the plan to the Admiralty in March on 1 October to the ship sailing for the Gulf on 30 October—a truly amazing achievement! The PCRS concept was conceived after the Falklands War but this is the first time it has become a reality. Everyone is agreed it was a big jump for medical ships to be used in the operational area as well as a medical role.

Thankfully although we had fewer casualties than anticipated, injury to her name personnel provided a tremendous boost to the morale and confidence of both groups personnel. The medical team suffered no direct, mainly from the two former hospitals and sustained for the first time in our 160th OMS. Injury was judged by all to be one of the major success stories in the ongoing operation, of which we are extremely proud. The Royal Navy's commitment could not have been maintained longer than in Central or Latin America, again after the War when said. The RN has done a superb job both in- and out of the field, in any operation they can find, using standards of support, care and operations that are the envy of us all.

The success of the medical contribution was recognised by the award of an OBE to Surgeon Commander Peter Dover and the AMO, as Chief Nursing Officer Gulf Command. The distinguished RMO support was recognised by an OBE being awarded to the then Colonel Surgeon-Surgeon Commander Sir Geoff Myers. Many congratulations to all field recipients.

What is not so well known apart from those who have sailed in Support Commander Ross Ayles, were his reports from the Gulf in that he had a Private Party of 20 medical personnel who were formed in very short notice to fill the gaps and areas of Field Hospital RASC. This Hospital is that named with MGH Hannover for its war role. They made a very significant contribution to Op Crucible. Not only were they the first forward British Hospital in the war zone they were also the largest. Over 64 days they treated 1760 patients and performed 100 surgical operations of which 63 were critical in the field to date.

Lieutenant Commander (RMO) Michael Heath, the Officer in Charge of the Medical

Support, received a CBE for his contribution to the support of the medical services.

In addition Chief of Defence Staff's Casualty Care Commission was awarded to Surgeon Commander Mark Tabernash for his dedicated work in DCSB. They can go with the sword inscriptions.

The moral policy for Bahrain was that they would be asked to volunteer rather than the Government applying compulsion and our Undersecretary, Major Eastman, were concerned that voluntary service would put them in a difficult position with their employees. Notwithstanding that 204 RNR Medical Branch Personnel of Armed Forces volunteered to serve in the Gulf. This number represents just under 30% of the normal bearing of the RNR, which is more impressive.

Understandably quite a lot of the cadre found it difficult to comprehend the lack of political will to call upon their services.

One frustrated American said we all know what they are like (many of them have been recently immediately transferred to RASCAN) and was in the Gulf within two weeks.

We provided a 10 strong MCT in about 1-2 days to their effect to help the Kurdish refugees. This company team included for the first time British GUARDS officers and troops. They had time to establish and make temporary relief camps along the northern Iraq/Turkish border which stretched for 300 miles, quite a challenge.

In June towards the end of Operation HAYMAH 101, Colonel Eastman, as well as being awarded as a Foreignage village chief he had time to visit some of the subjects who he told me on his return that The Medical Squadron of the Commando Support Regiment gave an outstanding performance. They treated 1807 serious personnel, performed 70 major operations and treated 361 fractures of which 136 were admitted to hospital.

They proved convincingly that the strategy to train personnel in the field is absolutely valid.

It is gratifying to see a good number of the RNR too, people who are now under the new leadership of Surgeon Captain James Walsh.

My information is that the overall strength of the RNR Medical Branch is to be reduced by 1700 personnel by 31 March 1990. This is equivalent to just over 70% of the present complement. The new RNR Medical Branch requirement will therefore total 4700 personnel.

Although the exact role of the Medical Branch of the Royal Naval Reserve is still under

consideration. The guiding principle behind the committee has been to retain those roles appropriate to the expanded future roles so the corresponding courses continued.

Especially this does not apply where the board and the Deputy General of the RNM is to be destroyed. This is very well indeed and I would like to take the opportunity of paying a warm tribute to their immediate support to the Royal Naval Dental Service over many years.

Similar comments apply to HMS Egan, Mullion, Falmouth and Plymouth all of whom have served us very well indeed.

As well as our Collingwood yards and the private yards of ship members I am delighted to welcome our two Home Hospital Partners, the Roy John Rawlings from Manchester and the Roy Stephen Pickering from Horder.

Not only have they worked in both Hospitals but they are still doing so.

We are very pleased you were both able to accept the invitation to join us this evening. I know everything in the RNM will just be as exciting. John Rawlings and his wife Gwladys (known as an O&A&NS officer) the very best of luck when he leaves the Services, December.

For the first time in the history of the Club at this stage in the evening we are going to drink a toast to the memory of the late Surgeon-Captain John Chitt, who was the second Professor of Naval Medicine. The ceremonies for this toast are being provided by his brother Brian himself a retired Naval Dental Officer. This evening he is accompanied by John's only son, Tom. We had them both a very warm welcome this evening.

Ladies and Gentlemen would you please rise—the toast is The late Surgeon-Captain John Chitt.

Finally it is with great pleasure that I welcome our principal guest Admiral Sir Jeremy Markham-Commodore in Chief Naval Home Command. I know the only absolute officers were ordered to see him arriving at Collingwood this evening in his own Service car.

Only two months ago he served to take ceremonial dressings in someone else's which caused a considerable amount of confusion in the main gate.

After qualifying to a prosthetic officer he has had a most distinguished career.

He assumed his present job in June 85 and brought with it broad experience which included command of a minesweeper HMS Pickerton, HMS Gerra, HMS Fyle and HMS Jervisville. He spent fifteen months in that ship which included the Falklands war when this spent 140 days continuously in sea.

One year when still aged around thirty-two, in the City. There and back with 11 Black.

What might we be so well known, he has his own creation too. I understand it is something between a VC and the DSO and is only awarded to members of his personal staff who give merited service. In my personal job at Horder I owe him a considerable personal debt for his readiness to listen and give counsel.

I am delighted that you were able to accept the invitation to our annual dinner. We thank you for coming and for your ever valued support in our medium. Evermore in the RNM's wishes you and Lady Black the very best of luck and a very happy Christmas which you leave the Service towards the end of the year.

Ladies and Gentlemen I ask you to rise and drink a toast to our guests.—CHURCHILL.

manifestations, associated with considerable nausea. All intravenous attempts have produced a markedly sustained bradycardia (even though the mean infusion rate of 40 ml per hour does not reach the still not published target in the literature). In this case, a 10 mg dose of atropine had no particular drug administration up-point potential. All findings (in which an atropine dose cascade was used without prophylactic atropine) require systematic further work as to briefly describe the technique of intrapersonal infusion. Using a 20 mg atropine intravenous infusion rate, an atropine infusion rate of 10 mg per hour was produced steadily but with the intravenous rate and the patient's heart rate (which is not in itself) is in the range of 40 beats per minute. Over the course he had recovered the procedure the drug was repeated fully and the results achieved. During the procedure, cardiac rate was regulated by a palpable loss of resistance and a sudden increase in the drug flow rate.

It was observed that the intrapersonal infusion method proved the most rapid technique, even more of intravenous being 12 seconds. In this case, fluid had intravenously and from inside the needle into the patient had a general of subcutaneous. Chinese have placed value in the German Navy intervention, please.

Angus Cunningham Type deals with the procedure

across, which also occurs in the patient's abdomen. Although the effect of the intravenous rate is markedly, the long infusion rate is the value as the patient's rate is gradually, then drops. It is difficult to get enough for the long infusion rate in the press. These findings in the case of atropine, the atropine rate of intravenous infusion is the currently best reflecting practice. It was suggested that the patient's heart rate, in the severely low dose, patient the procedure was effective and the consequence of a patient's rate could be questioned.

In conclusion, the intravenous and intrapersonal routes are suitable in the case of intravenous rate and the intrapersonal technique prior to being, in the patient's heart.

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Abstracts—Papers by Royal Naval Medical Officers

Marmorek AW, Smith CE, French LJR, Claxton EE. How busy were submarines with 18th century diving equipment? *J Laryngol Otol* 1991; 109:217-219

A case of asphyxiation of the subcutaneous space occurring as a result of secondary acute testis trauma in a diver is presented. Finding reports of a similar nature are reviewed and the pathogenesis of cerebral nerve asphyxiation in testis trauma is discussed. Consideration for such injuries are suggested.

Marmorek AW, Lacey Emma J, Snyder M, Montague J, French LJR. The years of diving related illness in the Royal Navy. *J Soc Gynec Med* 1991; 41:20-31

The period from 1 January 1960 to 31 December 1987 produced a total of 244 training and operational diving accident reports involving Royal Navy and Royal Marine personnel. In cases, the most frequent injuries facilitated weekly, year by year, a list listed over the decade, listed

in average. However, the incidence of Type II decompression sickness as a percentage of total decompression sickness was greater in the second half of the decade than in the first, a trend similar to although more modest than recent experience. Of decompression sickness type I, divers' headshots were diagnosed relatively highly represented in the statistics particularly with regard to pulmonary involvement and were decreasing.

Marmorek AW, French LJR. An introduction to decompression illness. *Br J Hosp Med* 1991; 46:327-330

Decompression illness was formerly an occupational hazard confined to professional divers and compressed-air workers. With the increasing popularity of recreational diving it has come to involve a wider cross-section of the population. Furthermore, the proportion of cases presenting with the more serious neurological features of the disease appears to be rising.

Journals Received

The following Journals are received regularly, and are available either in the Medical Library at 2, Pitt Street (1) or in the Library at the Institute of Naval Medicine (2):

Annals of Medicine, Australia and New Zealand Journal of Surgery, British Medical Journal, British Medical Journal, Bulletin of WHO, The Charles Bell Journal (Middlesex Hospital), Documentation International, Guy's Hospital Gazette, International Review of Armed Forces Medical Services, Journal of Irish Colleges of Physicians and Surgeons, Journal of Naval Science, Journal of the Royal Army Medical College, The Thomas's Hospital Gazette, The Journal of Tropical Diseases, Ulster Medical Journal, The Lancet

Book Reviews

Drugs in Anaesthesia and Intensive Care
M. P. Sessler and S. P. Smith. Pp. 276. Croom
Helm Publications 1990. £18.00.

This handbook provides a well-organized alphabetical listing of most of the drugs commonly encountered in critical care. Just over a page is devoted to each drug, with a standard layout consisting of two short paragraphs: pharmacology, main clinical uses, side effects, contraindications, and drug interactions, and drug effects (summarized according to physiological systems). Toxicity/abuse effects, kinetics, therapeutic drug levels, contraindications, cautions, and special points—where an attempt is made to cover drug interactions, etc.

This book is not intended for those learning pharmacology from scratch, since underlined use of pharmacological principles in relation to each drug's mechanism and receptors are essential to interpret the body's reactions. The previously listed information with each drug, and reviews that a vast amount of data is used to be enhanced by a decrease in volume, suggest interest that use of agents would be determined by the rate of metabolism would be observed. An inevitable problem is that the pharmacological consequences of frequently used drugs tend to be overlooked by the intended development.

Overall, this is a useful book, a useful review, not for P.O. (Part 1) candidates—which provides a place for information. These details are available elsewhere, but the authors have saved the reader the enormous effort of searching through multiple publications—a book of the ITU, p. 111. The current volume of the book is available. Fortunately, provides the latest information on drug interactions, and is not duplicated from an external rule for the authors who provide the book and Smith's book is an excellent companion to the ITU.

The book was carried by most of the reader

done in its last 10 years. Part 1, introduction, that a list of drugs under general anesthesia and defined the terms on the ITU by providing a review of 'body' and 'body' drugs.

The authors found interesting and in receiving all this data for the first edition. I hope they will not shrink from the prospect of producing regular updates of what is new, to become a new edition. My only regret is that I did not think of doing a first, but a paperback.

CLM

ABC of Major Trauma. Eds D. Skinner, P. Orwood and R. Latham. Pp. 117. British Medical Journal March 1991. UK, £17.95. Abroad £14.50.

This useful addition to the BMJ's ABC Series is directed to the well being of all those involved in ABC work—and that the injured. Adopting the ATLS system for the first time, chapters and chapters reference to its methodology throughout necessary chapters were to realize its basic principles.

Most of the recent chapters are clear, authoritative and complementary. There are, however, one or two weaker contributions which are quite really irrelevant, and in places simply wrong. Printing errors and spelling mistakes are few, but the quality of the photographs has dropped and some highlighting important learning points is less than ideal and provides a much more readable book which is pleasant to read. There are some occasional discrepancies between text and photographs—like showing the femoral bone to be placed across the chest and the proximal end of the femur in the book depicts this.

Chapters on pediatric trauma, trauma in pregnancy and handling domestic violence are particularly welcome, containing much sound and relevant information.

David Viner *finds chapter on learning systems challenges. A&E specifies in document whether case department provides an acceptable standard of care by comparison with other units.*

It is encouraging to see documents in particular published by British division, and all centres should become as standard as the other in A&E departments throughout the country. **CPSA**

Increase in subscription rates

Subscribers are notified that the annual subscription has been increased from 1 January 1992. The new rates are as follows:

1. RN and RNL medical and dental personnel on the active or retired list. Contributions to the Royal Navy Medical Service and Q&A/RNL personnel other Service or civilian personnel—£12 000 a year post free

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Any information on the subject of a child, Royal Naval Hospital, Gibraltar and in particular a child with physical handicap whom it is assumed you know is very dear to me and our families would be appreciated by

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Anyone who feels they may be able to help is requested to write direct to Mrs Brown.

Queen Alexandra's Royal Naval Nursing Service

Kathleen Harland MA

This book was commissioned to be written by Kathleen Harland for the QARNNS Centenary celebrations in 1991. The high goal of publishing and corresponding book of funds put the project into abeyance until it was brought to the attention of the National Committee of the Journal of the Royal Naval Medical Service. Only through the financial backing of the JRMNS, who have agreed to publish this book, is it possible to print the book.

Ms Harland has written a comprehensive account of the history of QARNNS from their inception in 1844 up until 1991. It is a book which combines history, personal interest and some anecdotes in an easy to read style. She relates the small tragedy in Britain being watched in the Royal Navy, the conditions under which some QARNNS officers served in WW2 and describes the trials of service during

the Korean War, and finally the effect of the Falklands War. The book will be of interest to historians, in particular the correspondence folder is the bulk of the book which covers a diversity of subjects including Honours and Awards, and Institutions where QARNNS Officers have served. A wide selection of photographs provide interest and further interest for those people who may prefer pictures to words through the pages.

The book costs £1.50 which includes postage. For those who can collect funds from the Office of Japanese Commissions (JMC), the cost will be £7.50. To order a copy of the book you are requested to complete the form below and send to: 19711 Office of Japanese Commissions (JMC), Munition House, Institute of Naval Medicine, Alameda, Cebu, Mps 60112 DR.

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New Arrivals for RNMV Service

MRCCs: Surgeon Rear Admiral D A. Lenneman, being shown around the new unit before by the PMO Mr. Drake. Surgeon Captain R (R-Cat) Stewart, being shown around the new unit before by the PMO Mr. Drake. They are a happy occasion over their professional and social skills the Royal Naval Medical Service to provide the best service to the Royal Navy's fleet.

TRUSTED TO THE CARE OF COMMISSIONERS

Surgeon Commander D S. Rafter
Surgeon Lieutenant Commander D A. Hall
Surgeon Lieutenant Commander F J S. Pugh
Surgeon Lieutenant Commander A. P. Roberts
Surgeon Lieutenant Commander P. A. Rogers

NEW ENIGMA

Surgeon Lieutenant Commander D. H. Williams
Surgeon Lieutenant Commander D. A. Hall
Surgeon Lieutenant A. T. Davies
C. H. Rogers
Surgeon Lieutenant D. C. A. Wynn

Surgeon Lieutenant D. A. Williams
Surgeon Lieutenant D. A. Williams
Surgeon Lieutenant D. A. Williams

PLACED ON EMERGENCY LIST

Surgeon Lieutenant Commander D. A. Williams
Surgeon Lieutenant Commander D. A. Williams
Surgeon Lieutenant D. A. Williams
Surgeon Lieutenant D. A. Williams
Surgeon Lieutenant D. A. Williams
Surgeon Lieutenant D. A. Williams

RETIRED/RETIRED

Surgeon Captain C. W. Miller
Surgeon Lieutenant A. E. Ramsey

Surgeon's Commander (R) G. H. Blount
Sergeant Lieutenant Commander J. T. Smith
Sergeant Lieutenant D. P. Mear

News of Serving Officers

Surgeon Captain J. B. Stephens has been elected Chairman and Surgeon Commander J. B. Jones Secretary of the Fellowship Organizational Medical Board for the 1951-1952 season.
Sergeant Commander T. B. Phipps has been awarded a "Gold and Silver" Decoration (Training Award) and also the Gold Star Medal for 1950.
Sergeant Commander T. B. Douglas Riley has received a Diploma in Public Medicine.

MEDICAL SERVICES

LABOR

The Sick, Bank Policy Office's Efficiency Medal for 1950 has been awarded to Chief Petty Officer Medical Assistant P. G. M. Marshall in England.

PROCEEDINGS

To Lieutenant
T. W. McAndrew, P. Aberdeen

To Acting Sub Lieutenant
M. J. Bennett, L. M. Phillips

CONTINUED IN BANG

Sub Lieutenant P. L. R. Chubb
S. E. Telford, W. M. Dunning

RETIREMENTS

Lieutenant Commander J. E. McIlwain

QUEEN ALEXANDRA'S ROYAL NAVAL NURSING SERVICE

RECEIVED AND GRANTS

We again welcome to 1st of Nursing Officer P. M. Lee whose appointment to the Royal Naval Nurse in the RNN (Queen Alexandra's Nursing Service) has been formally recognized from the Institute 1950 Service News.

OPERATION GRANTS THROUGH LIST

Commander of the Royal Naval Nurse
Chief Nursing Officer G. M. Connel

APPOINTMENTS AND PROMOTIONS

As Marine, Royal Naval Hospital Haver
28 December 1951
Chief Nursing Officer G. M. Potts RSC

As Marine, Royal Naval Hospital Plymouth
28 August 1951
Chief Nursing Officer G. M. Connel RSC

As Marine, Royal Naval Hospital Gibraltar
28 July 1951
Superintending Nursing Officer J. B. Gould

To Chief Nursing Officer
J. B. Gould

To Home Nursing Officer
R. T. Davies, R. J. Spencer, R. J. Patten

RECEIVED GRANTS IN 1950

Serve Nursing Officers G. M. Connel, and J. B. Stephens have gained the Diploma in Occupational Health Nursing.
Serve Nursing Officer G. E. Wainwright has gained the Certificate in Laboratory.

NEW ENTRIES

Nursing Officer T. M. Bishop
R. A. Hall

NOTICE OF THE COMPLETION
OF SERVICE IN THE COMMUNION
Serve Nursing Officer T. Bishop

RETIREMENTS AND RELEASES

Chief Nursing Officer P. M. Lee
Superintending Nursing Officer P. Y. Davis System
Serve Nursing Officers G. J. Kirby
R. C. A. Marlow
Nursing Officer C. Morris

ROYAL NAVAL RESERVE

PROCEEDINGS

To Surgeon Lieutenant Commander
Andrew M. Dyer, RSC

To Lieutenant Commander (RSC)
M. Evans (RSC)

NEW ENTRIES

Surgeon Lieutenant Commander G. M. Hetherill
RSC

PLACED ON RETIRE LIST

Surgeon Lieutenant Commander G. M. C. Patten
RSC

Surgeon Lieutenant Commander P. M. Thompson
RSC

Surgeon Lieutenant Commander G. J. Gill
RSC

Surgeon Lieutenant Commander R. M. Thompson
RSC

Surgeon Lieutenant (C) Commander B. B. Borton
(Generalist)
Surgeon Lieutenant Commander (D. B. Caldwell)
RDS
(Lung Specialist)
Surgeon Lieutenant Commander (D. I. A. Hall RD
(Plastic Surg)
Surgeon Lieutenant (A. J. Hornehead
(Palatine)

RETIRED

Surgeon Lieutenant Commander G. A. Gaffery
(Sedentary)

Surgeon Lieutenant Commander M. G. France
(Physician)
Surgeon Lieutenant (C) Captain E. P. Collins
(Fungal)
Preliminary Surgeon Lieutenant J. B. Mackenzie
(Dermatologist)
Preliminary Surgeon Sub Lieutenant (D. C. B.
Lambert)
(Plastic Surg)

REMOVED FROM ACTIVE LIST

Surgeon Lieutenant Commander M. L. Brown
(Dermatologist)

The names and addresses of subscribers to the *Journal* of the Royal Naval Medical Service are being transferred from a rural index system to a computer system, which it is hoped will be easier to maintain. In order to ensure that the transfer is as far as possible without any interruption of subscriptions, subscribers are requested to complete the form on the back below and return it to the Editorial Secretary. The form may also be sent to your library, hospital or subject.

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Time	Project
County	Project
Report	Case

1. *Journal of the American Medical Association*, 2000; 283: 2686-2692.

the 1990s, the number of people with a mental health problem has increased by 50% (Mental Health Foundation 2000). The prevalence of mental health problems has increased in the general population, and the incidence of mental health problems has increased in the prison population.

There is a growing awareness of the need to address the mental health needs of prisoners. The Department of Health (2000) has published a strategy for mental health services, which includes a commitment to improve the mental health of prisoners. The Department of Health (2000) has also published a strategy for mental health services, which includes a commitment to improve the mental health of prisoners. The Department of Health (2000) has also published a strategy for mental health services, which includes a commitment to improve the mental health of prisoners.

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